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SIMPLY GRAMMAR

AN ILLUSTRATED PRIMER

Karen Andreola

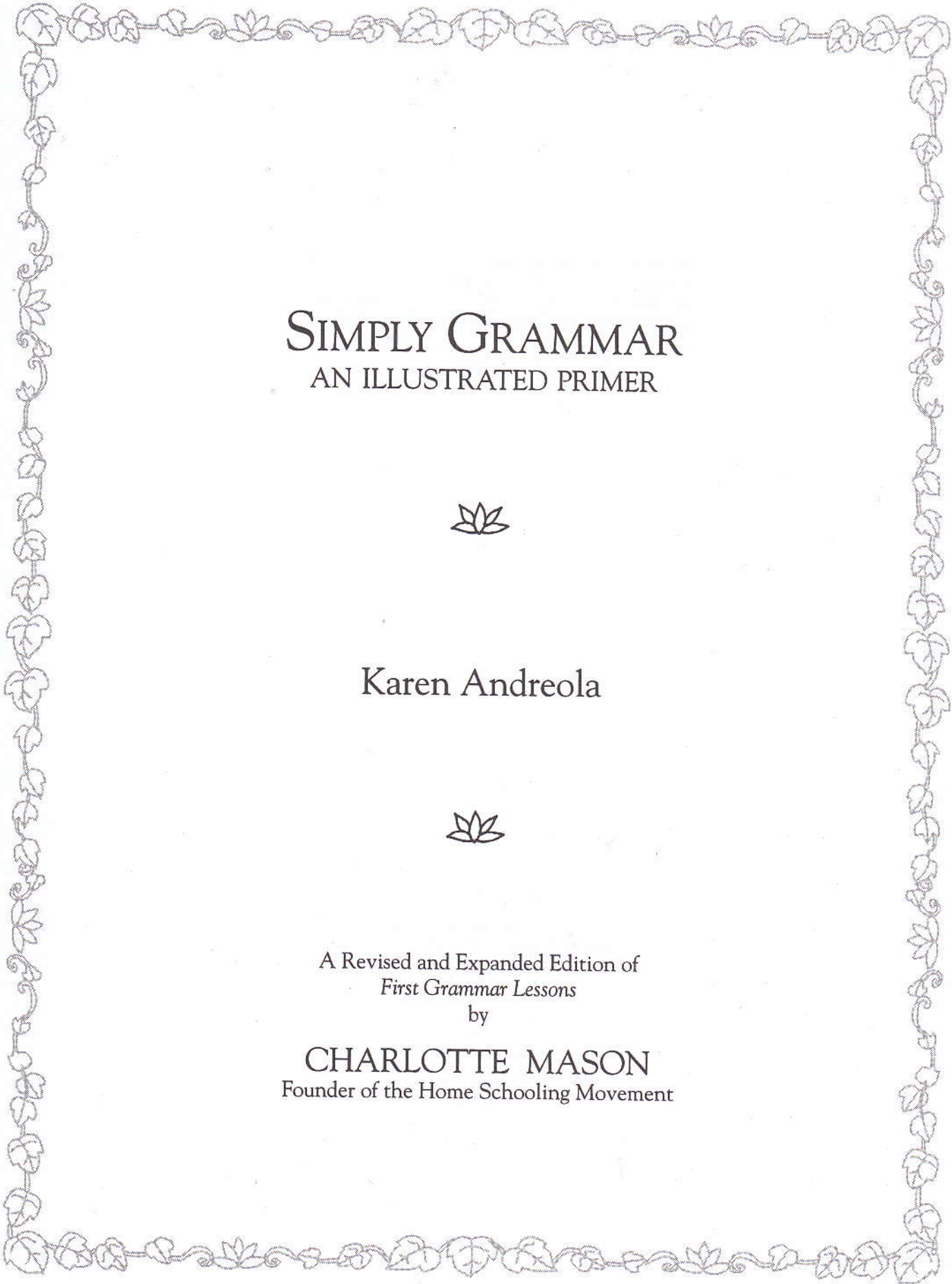


A Revised and Expanded Edition of
First Grammar Lessons

by

CHARLOTTE MASON

Founder of the Home Schooling Movement

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INTRODUCTION

Charlotte Maria Shaw Mason (1842-1923) dedicated her life to making the education of children simpler, more natural, and more personal. In 1886 her book *Home Education* was avidly bought by women anxious to ensure the best possible upbringing for their offspring. The need was real, especially among middle-class women of modest means. Education was a subject of debate and discussion, which had led to the Education Act of 1870. Many concerned parents, perhaps more particularly concerned mothers, were looking for something better. Charlotte Mason's *Home Education* offered it. It explained how parents could—and should—provide their children with a broad, stimulating, even exciting education, far removed from the common diet of so many elementary schools of the day.

Very soon the Parents National Education Union (PNEU) was established. Branches were set up in many major towns and cities, and by 1890 the organization had its own monthly magazine, *The Parents' Review*, edited by Charlotte Mason herself. Mason had quickly become a leading authority on early childhood.

In 1892, the House of Education in Ambleside was established. This teachers' training college flourished. By the 1920s the PNEU had established several schools as well as a correspondence school, run from Ambleside, which sent out lessons and advice to homeschooling parents and governesses. Included among Charlotte Mason's many projects was the writing of grammar lessons for young children. For some years it was the custom of Mason's students at her training college to use her grammar lessons with their own pupils. Although she intended to publish the lessons, the opportunity for completing the exercises never came.

Throughout this revised edition, republished as *Simply Grammar: An Illustrated Primer*, I have endeavored to maintain sensitivity to the integrity of the original work, and especially to its heart. Charlotte Mason's commitment to simple, natural learning still stands in stark contrast to the workbook mentality of too many of today's grammars. To make these wonderful lessons effective for a new generation of children, words more familiar to the ear of today's child have been used in place of some of the less familiar words of turn-of-the-century England (*apron*, instead of *frock*; *New York*, instead of *Brighton*).

In addition, some grammatical terms have been updated, and a sprinkling of notes and material has been added to supplement Miss Mason's lessons. Illustrations have been added for visual interest as an aid in narration exercises. Appendix A has additional exercises. Appendix B has an answer key for those exercise numbers preceded by an asterisk (*)

To help you understand the practicality and effectiveness of *Simply Grammar*, I have attempted to answer some of the questions you may have concerning this unique teaching resource.

How does *Simply Grammar* differ from other grammars?

Simply Grammar is best thought of as a "living grammar." It is not the tedious workbook approach to grammar that most students endure with clenched teeth and minds. Rather, it is an uncomplicated, lively, mind-engaging, interactive approach that introduces your child to grammar concepts through the use of spoken language. It is unique because it can be used predominantly as an "oral" grammar focusing on guided conversation between a teacher and student. Spoken words are put together to form a sentence or tell a story. Although any of the exercises can be written out by the student and kept in his own personal notebook, *Simply Grammar* is not a pencil-and-paper grammar focusing on the workbook style of learning. *Simply Grammar* is, simply, the most natural and effective way for your child to learn grammar. With this format the teacher is welcomed to try many of the exercises herself and develop a thorough knowledge of the grammar lessons along with the student. This eliminates the rigid dependence on a teacher's guide.

At what age, or in what grade, should I use *Simply Grammar*?

In its original form, *Simply Grammar* was intended for children beginning from around the age of nine. As a reference, the book can be used even through high school years. In Charlotte Mason's schools and homeschool programs grammar lessons did not begin until the fourth grade, and were preceded by at least two years of narration. Whenever grammar is brought into your child's studies, it should be built on a firm foundation of an oral language experience.

What exactly is narration and why is it so important?

Charlotte Mason believed knowledge should be communicated in well-chosen language, because a child responds naturally to what is conveyed in literary form. As knowledge is not assimilated until it is reproduced, children should "tell back" after a single reading or hearing, or should write about some part of what they have read. Mason discovered that what a child digs for becomes his own possession. This simple, old fashioned way of learning by narrating has been replaced by the oral lecture, the convenient use of workbooks, and the textbook questionnaire. There is no comparison. In 1902, Miss E. A. Parish, a PNEU teacher, said, "Narrating is not the work of a parrot." That is workbook mentality. She continued, "It is the absorbing into oneself the beautiful thought (ideas) from the book, making it one's own and then giving it forth again with just that little touch that comes from one's own mind." Even today, in PNEU schools, the teacher will read aloud a passage from a well-written book. Children will "tell back" their own version of the story with surprising fluency, picking up phrases and vocabulary as it strikes them. We can see how narration invites the child's individual personality to become part of his learning process.

Narration is important for the young learner because it challenges and strengthens all the powers of mind," as Charlotte Mason called them: attending, remembering, visualizing, comprehending, synthesizing (seeing the whole from the parts), and articulating. Children may find narration difficult when ideas are not present in what is being read. As ideas are what the mind feeds on, let us aim to give our children at least one idea a day. Whole books work best for

the use of narration because ideas required for the sustenance of children are to be found mainly in books of literary quality. Educate with these books, and a child's mind does for itself the sorting, arranging, selecting, rejecting, and classifying for which modern textbook committees think they are responsible.

Simply Grammar is built around the use of narration because it is the most natural and effective way to use language. Charlotte Mason tells us in *Home Education* that "narration is an art, like poetry making or painting, because it is *there*, in every child's mind, waiting to be discovered, and is not really the result of any process of disciplinary education. Haven't you ever heard how excitedly a child will come bounding into the house telling how Billy's dog chased his cat across the field and up a tree? He tells the tale in true epic style, in ordered sequence, with fit and graphic details, with a just choice of words, and without verbosity." Mason also says that "this amazing gift with which normal children are born is allowed to lie fallow in their education." Be available to hear any spontaneous "tellings" from your younger-than-six-year-old. Only after the age of six should you begin to require a bit of "telling" from *short* passages read aloud to him. Gradually, a child of nine or ten should be able to narrate from half a chapter to a whole chapter at a time.

In my 1992 interview with Eve Anderson, recently retired headmistress of Eton End PNEU School in Britain, she told of the extensive role narration has played in her school and offered a few hints for classroom use:

I believe that narration is still of great value, but in fewer subjects than in Charlotte's time, particularly in scientific and geographical subjects, as these are now more factual. Narration can be useful in all literature, Bible study, history, etc. It promotes good concentration. The child who is able to retell a story in his own words can remember the story clearly, as long as a good introduction has been given. The teacher should not get between the text and the child retelling the passage. Avoid too much questioning, summarizing at the end, and if necessary, drawing out a particular point. I think some teachers try to read aloud too long a passage for a narration lesson. This can lead to confusion and a poor narration. Within a narration lesson one can involve most of the class in either giving a recapitulation of the last lesson, a full narration, or filling in after someone else, so there is normally full class involvement.

If my child has done very little narrating, when should I begin using *Simply Grammar*?

Simply Grammar will be more effective if the habit of narration is already being instilled. However, if your child is homeschooled he may be better prepared for narration than you realize. Has your child been doing any of the following: hearing "proper English" in good children's literature read aloud; memorizing passages from the Bible or favorite poems for recitation; telling back to you portions of stories; recounting interesting experiences from the neighborhood? If so, then oral language is already part of your routine and your child is off to a good start. If not, or if you're not sure, then before you start *Simply Grammar* you will want to begin to develop the habit and skills of narration.

How many of the exercises should my child complete in one sitting?

At each sitting, you will read aloud or review one lesson and its grammar rule; then do the accompanying exercises with your child. Charlotte Mason believed in short lessons. You should plan about ten to fifteen minutes for the entire session, accomplishing only as many exercises as this time will allow. The exercises are numbered so you may stop at any point and leave some for another sitting. Above all, don't rush the lesson or the exercises. Neither length of time nor speed are of the essence... understanding and enjoyment of learning are!

How many lessons should I teach a week?

One lesson each week, or even every other week, is sufficient. It is not necessary to introduce a new lesson each week, and in most cases to complete all the lessons in one year. You should feel the freedom to review lessons and create new exercises as often as needed. If your child has difficulty grasping a lesson, put the book aside for a time. Charlotte Mason designed the sequence of lessons to build upon one another, but if you choose to skip a lesson you can return to it later. *Simply Grammar* is a flexible teaching tool, accommodating a range of ages and abilities, but you should strive for consistency and a regular schedule that is suited to your situation.

If I already have grammar instructional materials, can I still use *Simply Grammar*?

Simply Grammar can be used either as your primary grammar curriculum, or to supplement other materials that contain grammar instruction. Unlike some popular language courses, Charlotte Mason's weekly exercises are not fragmented into different grammar activities. One grammar rule is taught per lesson. All the weekly exercises that follow focus on, and refer to, one grammar rule.

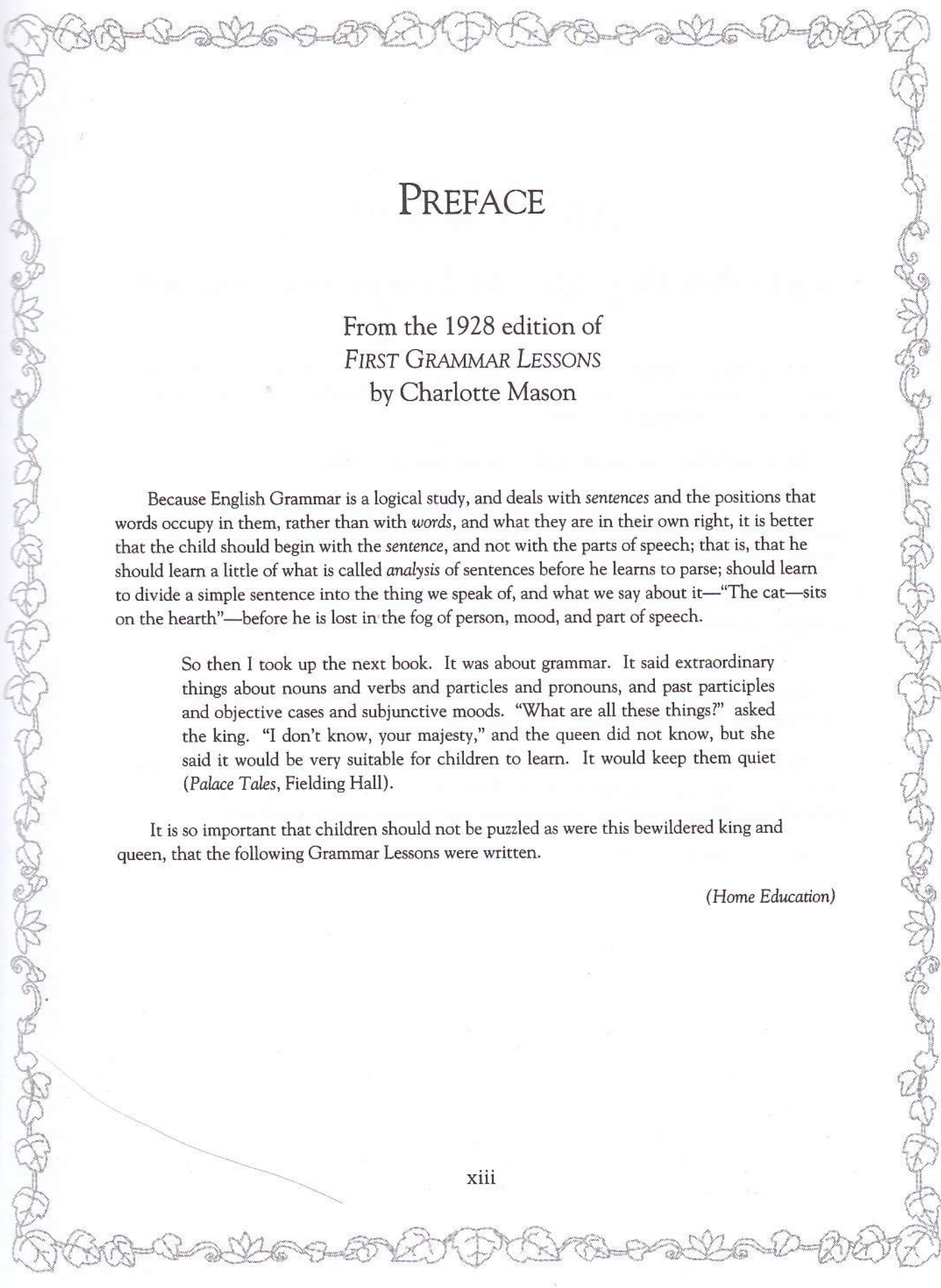
Because lessons are so concise and uncomplicated, you can use Mason's book to clearly explain any fundamental grammar rule, no matter what language course you follow. Simplicity makes this volume a handy young people's grammar dictionary.

How do I get started with *Simply Grammar* in the simplest way?

Find a comfortable place for you and your child, pick up the book, and read. It's that simple. That's why it's called, *Simply Grammar*.

Karen Andreola

—Selected passages of this introduction have been freely adapted from the *Original Home Schooling Series* foreword by Dr. John Thorley, Principal—Charlotte Mason College, Ambleside, England.



PREFACE

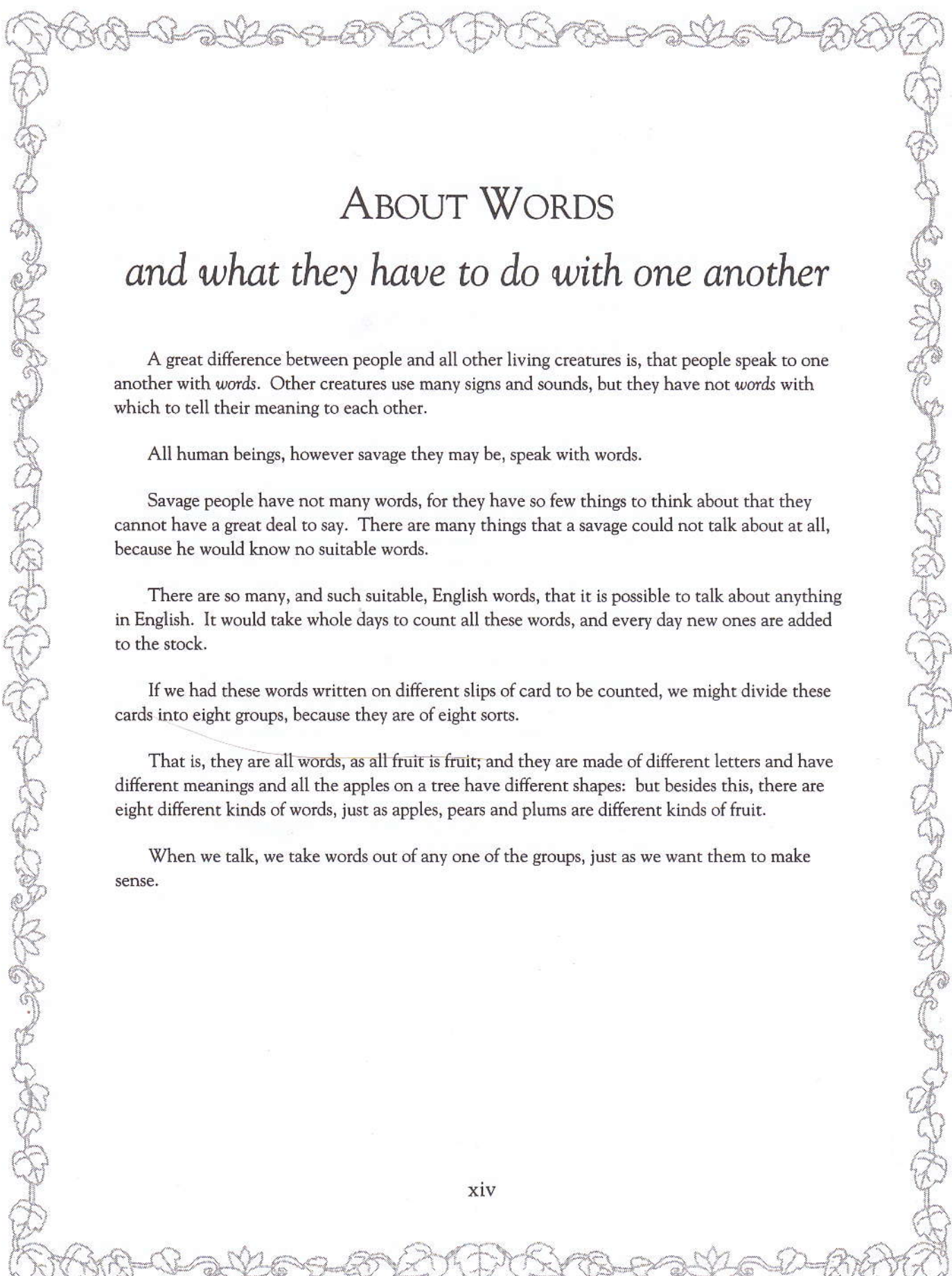
From the 1928 edition of
FIRST GRAMMAR LESSONS
by Charlotte Mason

Because English Grammar is a logical study, and deals with *sentences* and the positions that words occupy in them, rather than with *words*, and what they are in their own right, it is better that the child should begin with the *sentence*, and not with the parts of speech; that is, that he should learn a little of what is called *analysis* of sentences before he learns to parse; should learn to divide a simple sentence into the thing we speak of, and what we say about it—"The cat—sits on the hearth"—before he is lost in the fog of person, mood, and part of speech.

So then I took up the next book. It was about grammar. It said extraordinary things about nouns and verbs and particles and pronouns, and past participles and objective cases and subjunctive moods. "What are all these things?" asked the king. "I don't know, your majesty," and the queen did not know, but she said it would be very suitable for children to learn. It would keep them quiet (*Palace Tales*, Fielding Hall).

It is so important that children should not be puzzled as were this bewildered king and queen, that the following Grammar Lessons were written.

(*Home Education*)



ABOUT WORDS

and what they have to do with one another

A great difference between people and all other living creatures is, that people speak to one another with *words*. Other creatures use many signs and sounds, but they have not *words* with which to tell their meaning to each other.

All human beings, however savage they may be, speak with words.

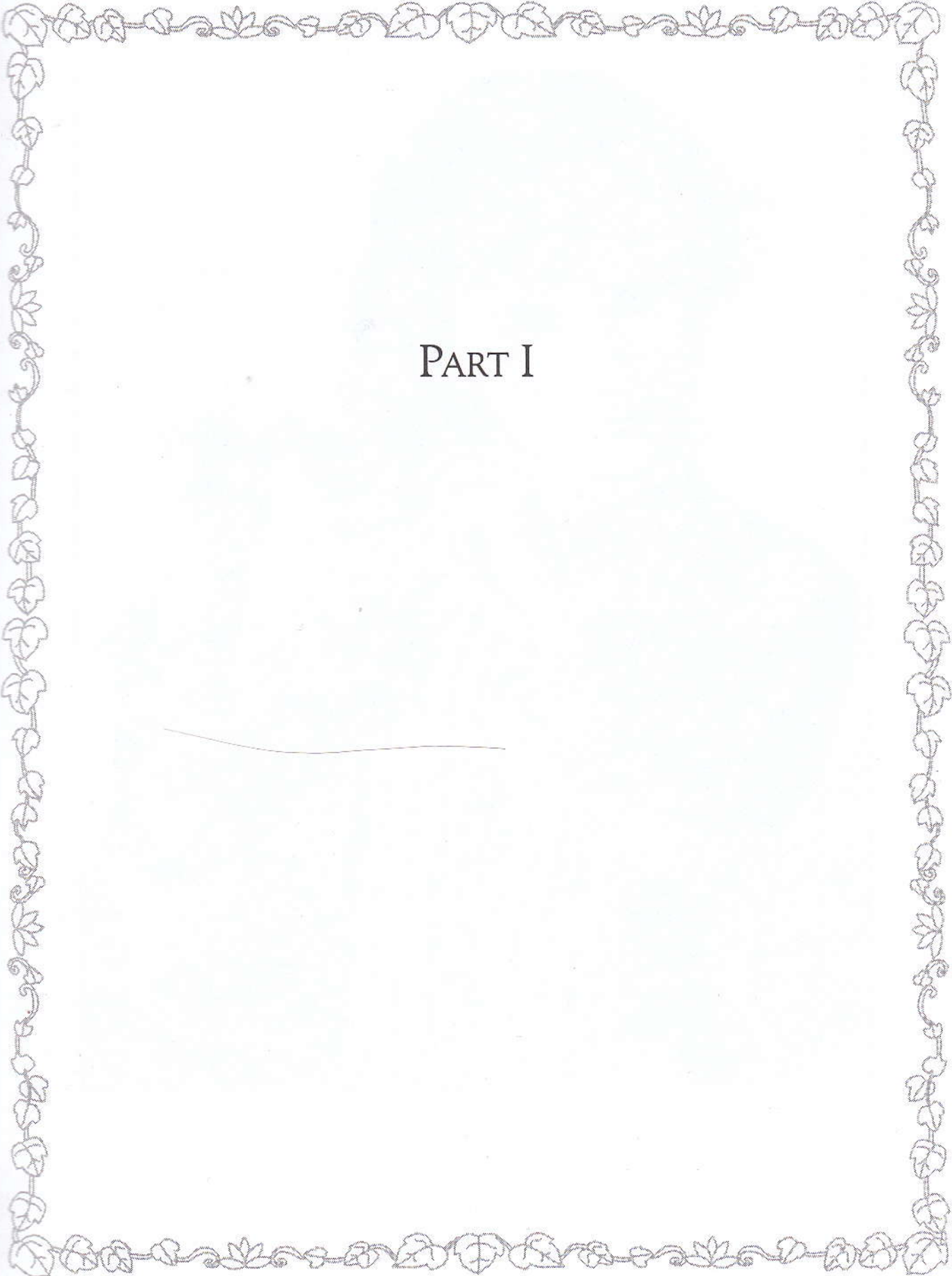
Savage people have not many words, for they have so few things to think about that they cannot have a great deal to say. There are many things that a savage could not talk about at all, because he would know no suitable words.

There are so many, and such suitable, English words, that it is possible to talk about anything in English. It would take whole days to count all these words, and every day new ones are added to the stock.

If we had these words written on different slips of card to be counted, we might divide these cards into eight groups, because they are of eight sorts.

That is, they are all words, as all fruit is fruit; and they are made of different letters and have different meanings and all the apples on a tree have different shapes: but besides this, there are eight different kinds of words, just as apples, pears and plums are different kinds of fruit.

When we talk, we take words out of any one of the groups, just as we want them to make sense.

A decorative border of repeating floral and leaf motifs surrounds the page.

PART I



LESSON 1

Words put together so as to make sense form what is called a *sentence*.

Barley oats chair really good and cherry—is not a sentence, because it makes no(n)sense.

“Tom has said his lesson.” That is a sentence.

It is a sentence because it tells us something about Tom.

Every sentence speaks of someone or of something, and tells us something about that of which it speaks.

So a sentence has two parts:

- (a) The person or thing of which we speak.
- (b) What we say about it.

In our sentence we speak of “Tom”; we say about him that he “has learned his lessons.”

The thing of which we speak is called the **SUBJECT**, which means, that about which we talk.

To be learned.

WORDS PUT TOGETHER SO AS TO MAKE SENSE FORM A SENTENCE.

A SENTENCE HAS TWO PARTS, THAT OF WHICH WE SPEAK, AND WHAT WE SAY ABOUT IT.

THAT OF WHICH WE SPEAK IS THE SUBJECT.



EXERCISE 1

1. Look at the picture on page 2 and put the first part to:

Mary cut her hair.

Now use your imagination and put the first part to:

The lion has a long mane.

The glass is broken.

James cannot do his math.

Paul played for an hour.

The part of each sentence which you have supplied is called the subject.

2. Look at the picture on page 4 and put the second part to:

My cousin Kenneth plays.

Now put the second part to:

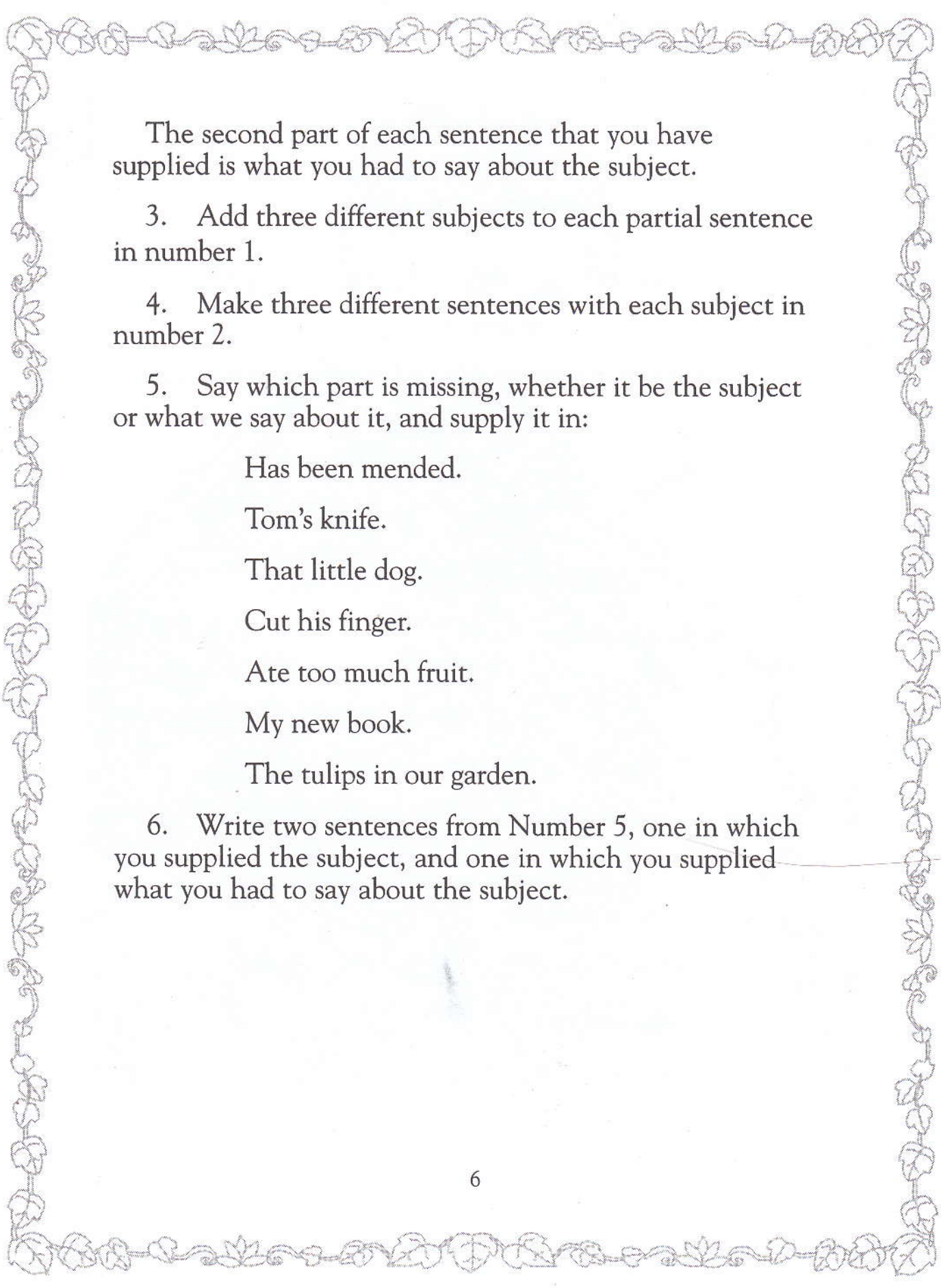
That poor sailor died.

My brother Tom loves.

The red flower-pot is broken.

Bread and jam are good.

The white pony is running.



The second part of each sentence that you have supplied is what you had to say about the subject.

3. Add three different subjects to each partial sentence in number 1.

4. Make three different sentences with each subject in number 2.

5. Say which part is missing, whether it be the subject or what we say about it, and supply it in:

Has been mended.

Tom's knife.

That little dog.

Cut his finger.

Ate too much fruit.

My new book.

The tulips in our garden.

6. Write two sentences from Number 5, one in which you supplied the subject, and one in which you supplied what you had to say about the subject.

LESSON 2

We may make a sentence of two words—the person or thing of which we speak, and what we say about it.

John writes.

Birds sing.

Mary sews.

We speak of "John."

We say about him that he "writes."

These words, "writes," "sing," "sews," come out of one group, and the words in that group are the chief words of all; for this reason, we cannot make sense, and therefore cannot make a sentence without using one of them.

They are called VERBS, which means *words*, because they are the chief words of all.

All verbs tell what a person or thing is, as:

I *am* hungry.

The chair *is* broken.

The birds *are* merry.

Or what a person or thing does:

Alice *writes*.

The cat *purrs*.

He *calls*.

To be learned.

WE CANNOT MAKE A SENTENCE WITHOUT A VERB.

"VERB" MEANS WORD.

VERBS STATE WHAT THE SUBJECT IS.

VERBS STATE WHAT THE SUBJECT DOES.

EXERCISE 2

*See Appendix B.

*1. Supply the missing verb for each sentence. The verb should state what the subject is.

Mary _____ sleepy.

Boys _____ rough.

Girls _____ quiet.

He _____ first yesterday.

I _____ a little boy.

Tom and George _____ swinging
before dinner.

We _____ busy tomorrow.

Fido _____ a good dog.

2. You have made eight sentences with different words about *being*.

Take each verb and make three new sentences with each one (24).

3. Find the verbs about *being* in:

I am glad he is here. If he were not we should be sorry and should fear he had been a bad boy, or was sick.

4. Make six sentences with as many "being" words in each as you can use.

5. Put a verb about *doing* with:

The cat _____.

Dogs _____.

6. Make ten sentences about "That man...." with verbs showing what he *does*.

That man walks.

- *7. Find the verbs, and say whether they are being or doing words, in:

He went away.

You are my cousin.

It is time to go to bed.

George goes to church.

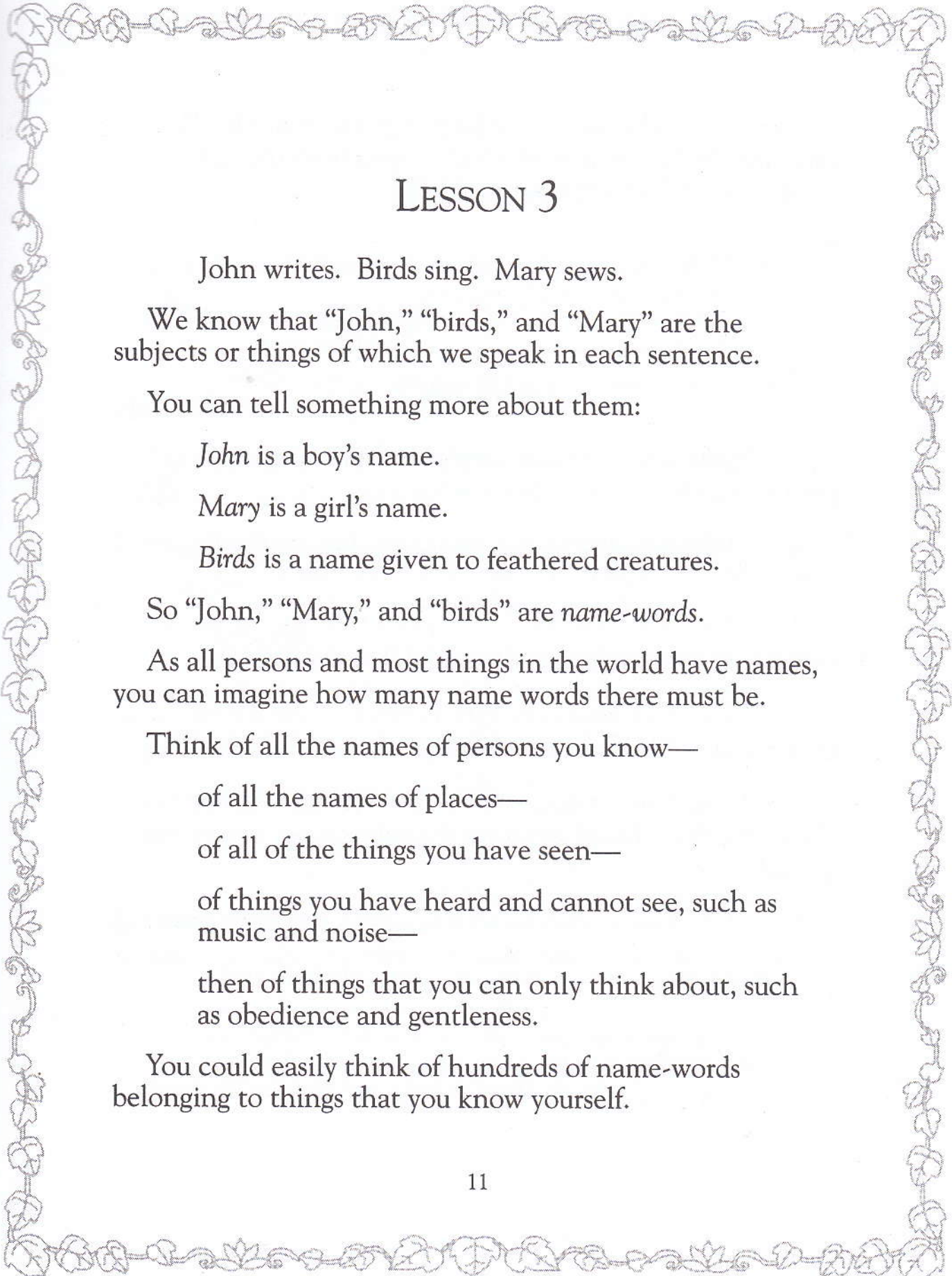
She took her book.

8. Tell a story about the picture on the next page.

9. Read your teacher's writing and point out every verb you have spoken in your talk. (Sometimes two words make the verb—He *can go*.) Say whether they are *being* or *doing* words.

Teacher's note: Please record your student's story (narration). The young student may need encouragement. You may ask the student: What else is happening in the picture? or What else do you see? Make sure to compliment him.





LESSON 3

John writes. Birds sing. Mary sews.

We know that "John," "birds," and "Mary" are the subjects or things of which we speak in each sentence.

You can tell something more about them:

John is a boy's name.

Mary is a girl's name.

Birds is a name given to feathered creatures.

So "John," "Mary," and "birds" are *name-words*.

As all persons and most things in the world have names, you can imagine how many name words there must be.

Think of all the names of persons you know—

of all the names of places—

of all of the things you have seen—

of things you have heard and cannot see, such as music and noise—

then of things that you can only think about, such as obedience and gentleness.

You could easily think of hundreds of name-words belonging to things that you know yourself.

Name-words belong to the largest group of words. We call them NOUNS, a word which comes from the Latin word "nomen," which means a *name*.

To be learned.

NAME-WORDS ARE CALLED NOUNS.

EXERCISE 3

1. Make ten sentences with nouns that are names of persons for the subject: *Mary* went away.
2. Make ten sentences with nouns that are the names of places for the subject: *Franklin* is a clean town.
3. Make ten sentences with nouns that are the names of things you can see for the subject: *Chairs* are useful.
4. Make four sentences with nouns that are the names of things you can hear for the subject: *A noise* wakes the baby.
5. Make four sentences with nouns that are the names of things you have heard about for the subject: *A victory* was gained.
6. Make four sentences with nouns that are the names of things you can only think of for the subject: *Patience* makes lessons pleasant.

You have made forty-two sentences with *Noun* subjects — repeat the exercise making two sentences with different nouns for the subjects.

LESSON 4

This lesson is about words that belong to nouns.

Nouns are the names of things.

These words in this lesson often point out nouns, or tell what the noun-things are like.

They are called ADJECTIVES, because they are added to nouns.

Sometimes they point out the noun like a pointing finger or an arrow:

The house.

A man.

Sometimes they come before the noun:

A *good* boy.

The *yellow* flower.

Sometimes they come after the noun:

A boy is *good*.

The flower is *yellow*.

Some adjectives tell what a thing is—that is, they describe:

A *sweet* orange.

A *sour* apple.

The cloud is *gray*.

The boy is *tall*.

Other adjectives show the number of things:

Three books.

The *first* crocus.

Nine boys.

The *third* shelf.

Other adjectives have no particular meaning:

Some apples.

Any cheese.

The *other* knife.

This knife.

These scissors.

But we can always tell they are adjectives because they belong to nouns.

To be learned.

ADJECTIVES BELONG TO NOUNS.

ADJECTIVES POINT OUT OR TELL SOMETHING ABOUT THE NOUNS TO WHICH THEY BELONG.

EXERCISE 4

*See Appendix B.

1. Make sentences about nouns, such as birds, cows, boy, eagles, house, putting "the" before each subject.

The can go before any noun.

A means *one*—we only use it when we speak of one thing.

2. Put subjects (nouns with "a") with: flies, crows, walks, talks, is small, was broken.

We cannot always use "a" before a noun, even when it means one thing.

Point out the difference between "a" and "an."

a lion tamer	an acrobat
a staircase	an elevator
a caterpillar	an inchworm
a shark	an octopus

Make six sentences with "an" and a noun for subject:

_____ fell to the ground.

3. Look at the picture on the next page. Put six describing adjectives with: the boy, the hamsters, the box, etc.



4. Put number adjectives before: cherries, door, seat, house, chairs, minutes, steps, fingers, tree stump.

*5. Put adjectives before the noun:

Examples: Which door?

Some bread.

This game.

Those children.

_____ boys.

_____ cherries.

_____ caterpillar.

_____ eggs.

6. Put an adjective after the noun and a "being" verb:

The seashore is _____.

The sand is _____.

The waves are _____.

This sand castle is _____.

The shells are _____.

7. Fill in three describing adjectives:

The _____ boy.

The doll's house is _____
_____.

8. Point out adjectives in such sentences as:

Give me that book.

I see a red apple.

I like vanilla ice cream.

That bear is wild.

This bear is tame.

9. Make sentences yourself containing each of the adjectives printed in italics:

The *little black* dog lives in *the other* house.

10. Draw a scenic picture. You may put in trees, mountains, a beach, country or city buildings. Then describe your picture using adjectives that belong to the nouns.

REVIEW EXERCISE FOR LESSONS 1-4

1. Take "boy" for the subject. Make ten sentences about "boy." Use a different describing adjective before the subject each time, and a different verb.

The *lively* boy *plays*.

A *diligent* boy *learns*.

Take five other nouns and do the same exercise.

2. Take "girls" for the subject, "came" for the verb.

Make ten sentences with adjectives that have no particular meaning before the subject: some, these, any, few, this, same, etc. These are adjectives, just because they belong to a noun.

Do the same with five other nouns.

Do the same with number adjectives.

3. We can discover adjectives in this way:

Which boy? The *lively* boy.

Which girls? Some girls.

Which door? The *first* door.

Any word that in this way belongs to a noun is an adjective.

Make sentences with a different verb in each about "a boy" from countries in Europe, as:

The *Italian* boy writes.

Take these same adjectives and put them after the noun and being verb:

The boy is *French*.

The boy is _____.

Supply four more.

4. Make sentences about a flower, a house, etc., putting four adjectives before each subject.

5. Look at the picture on the next page. Make sentences about the boy and the dog, putting three adjectives after each noun.

Example: The key is heavy, large, and rusty.

Teacher's note: More exercises may be necessary at this point to fix the idea of an adjective—not as a describing word, but as that which belongs to a noun. Have the child repeat any numbered exercises. Can he say, in his own words, what an adjective is?



LESSON 5

We know that a sentence has two parts.

The first part, that thing we speak of, is called the subject.

Our subjects have been name-words, or nouns.

And we have put with them adjectives.

The second part of a sentence is, we know, what we *tell* about the subject.

This second part is often called a PREDICATE—a word which simply means to “tell.” If you say “The day is fine” you predicate, or tell, something about the day.

Try how many things you can predicate, or say, about George:

George	{	ate his dinner.
		played on the beach.
		is a good boy.
		is kind.

These are predicates, because they are what we predicate or say about George.

The *verb* is always in this part of the sentence.

Sentences often have only a verb for the predicate.

Your little sister Alice *laughed*.

To be learned.

WHAT WE SAY ABOUT THE SUBJECT IS CALLED THE PREDICATE.

TO PREDICATE MEANS TO TELL ABOUT A THING.



EXERCISE 5

*See Appendix B.

1. Look at the picture. Predicate six things about each of the following: The artistic boy.

The gentle cat.

Teacher's note: Please record your student's sentences. Older children may write their sentences for numbers 1 and 3.

Read your teacher's writing, draw a line under the verb in each predicate, and say whether it is of *being* or of *doing*.

2. Put subjects to:

- _____ is soon over.
- _____ chatters.
- _____ climbs the fence.
- _____ makes honey.
- _____ sells lemonade.

3. Make six sentences with only a verb for the predicate. Example: The sun shines. The music box plays.

*4. Find the predicate in:

- Mother baked a cake.
- Yolanda mixed the frosting.
- Nigel licked the spoon.
- Sophia lit the candles.
- We sang "Happy Birthday."
- Dad blew out the candles.

LESSON 6

An interesting thing about verbs is that they go in families; that is to say, to every verb there are different forms of that verb.

To *do* is a verb, and some of its words are:

do, did, does, doing, done.

Be is a very busy and useful verb.

Is, are, was, were, are some of its forms. Notice how often you meet with them when you are reading.

Some verbs can predicate or tell something about a subject by themselves.

John *reads*.

But if we use a being verb as in "John *is*," or "John *was*," we need a noun or adjective to help make the predicate.

John *is* a boy.

Here we used the noun *boy* to help make the predicate.

John *is* good.

Here we used the adjective *good* to help make the predicate.

To *be* learned.

"IS" AND A NOUN MAKE A PREDICATE.

"IS" AND AN ADJECTIVE MAKE A PREDICATE.

EXERCISE 6

1. Make three sentences with "do," "did," "does," in the predicate. Example:

Thomas does his school work.

He likes math problems.

He did a difficult problem.

Make three sentences with three words of the verb "to talk" (talk, talks, talked), "to go" (go, went, goes), "to have" (have, has, had), etc. Look at the picture on the next page for ideas.

2. Make sentences with four verbs that can predicate by themselves:

Mary *sings*.

Grass *grows*.

Ducks *quack*.

Leaves *fall*.

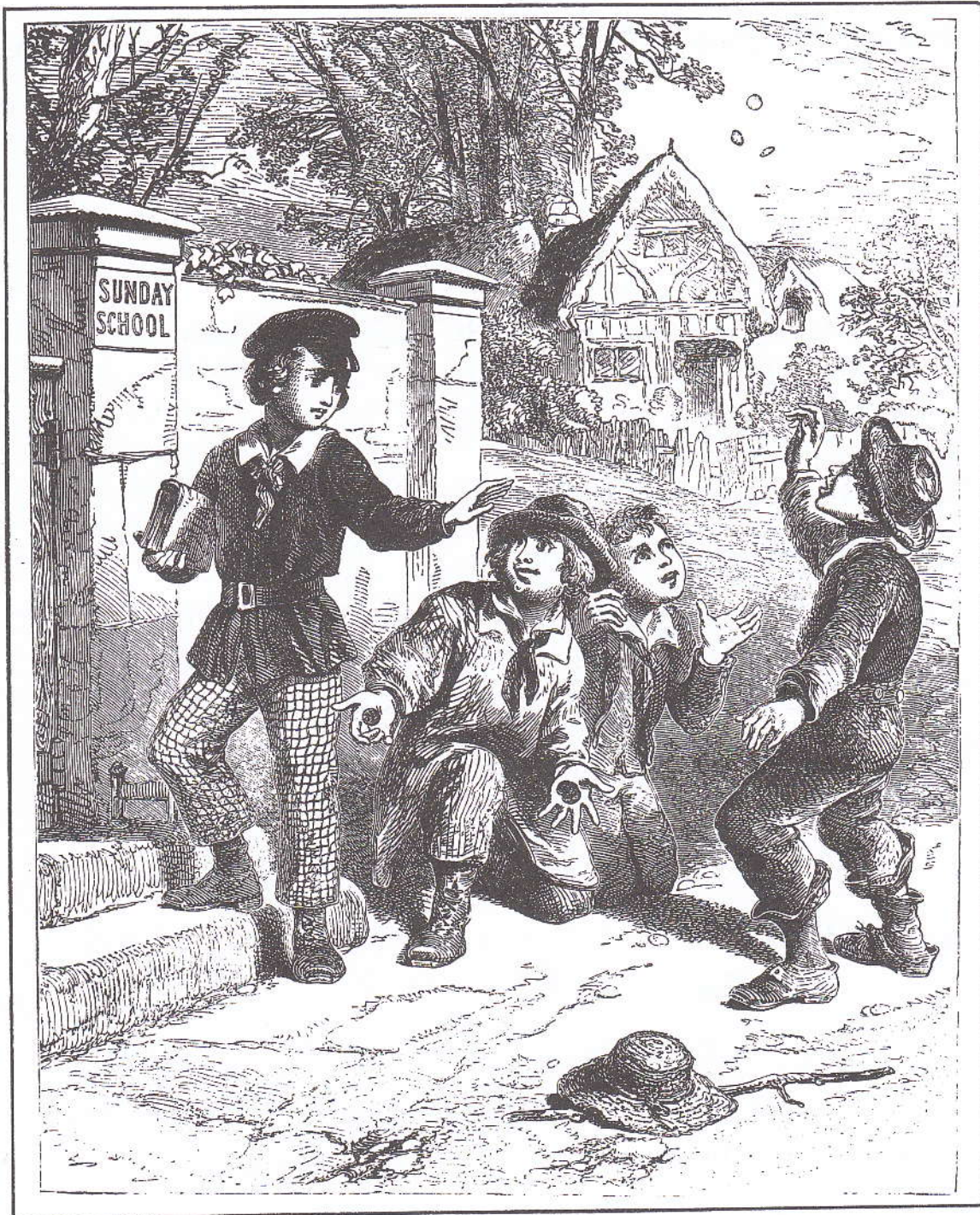
3. Make four sentences using being verbs that need other words after them:

Henry _____.

Mother _____.

The thief _____.

The police _____.



4. Make six sentences with "is" and a noun for the predicate.

Examples: (subject—"is"—noun)

That man is our pastor.

A daisy is a flower.

5. Make six sentences with "is" and an adjective for the predicate; with "was" and an adjective.

Examples: (subject—"is"—adjective)

The baby is weak.

The water is cold.

Examples: (subject—"was"—adjective)

The bus driver was tired.

The wheel was flat.

LESSON 7

The table is round.

The wall is high.

The curtain is red.

We speak of the table. We say about it that it is round.

"Table" is the subject. "Is round" is the predicate.

"Round" is an adjective, therefore it must belong to a noun. What is round? The table. So "round" belongs to the noun "table."

All these adjectives, though they are away from their nouns, and in the predicate, belong to the nouns all the same.

Here are six sentences about the sofa with "is" and an adjective:

The sofa is large.

The sofa is green.

The sofa is wide.

The sofa is soft.

The sofa is new.

The sofa is handsome.

We might make these into one sentence by turning the six predicates into one.

The sofa is _____ now say the adjectives all one after the other, but put *and* between the two last.

When we write several sentences turned into one in this way, we put *and* between the last two adjectives, and a comma after each of them as:

The sofa is large, green, wide, soft, new, and handsome.

To be learned.

ADJECTIVES MUST ALWAYS BELONG TO NOUNS.

EXERCISE 7

1. Make sentences with "is" and an adjective for each predicate, about ten things in the room:

The window is *high*.

2. Make six sentences with "is" and an adjective for the predicate, about the picture on the next page.

Example: His hair is short.
His hair is curly.
His hair is blonde.
His hair is thick.
His hair is neat.
His hair is clean.

Teacher's note: Please record each of these six sentences so that the student can read them over and make a long sentence for number 3 which may be spoken or written. He may say—"His hair is.... The books are.... His hat is...." etc.

3. Turn these six sentences into one. Remember to put *and* before the last adjective and a comma after each of the others.

Example: His hair is short, curly, blonde, thick, neat, and clean.



LESSON 8

In this lesson we shall speak of the same things, that is, we shall have the same subjects for our sentences—table, wall, curtain.

But instead of one table we shall speak of several, and our subject will be not “the table,” but “the tables.”

So the difference will be in the *number* of things of which we speak.

When we speak of a *single* one, we say “table.” If we mean more than one we say “tables.”

The word for one thing is single, or *singular*—that is, one by itself.

The word for more than one may be new to you. It comes from a Latin word that means *more*. We say name-words are *plural* when more than one thing is meant.

If the number of things we speak of is more than one, the noun is in the plural number.

If the number of things is just one, the noun is in the singular number.

Singular nouns are generally made plural by adding *s*.

To be learned.

WHEN THE NUMBER OF THINGS MEANT IS MORE THAN ONE THE NOUN IS IN THE PLURAL NUMBER.

A NOUN THAT MEANS ONE THING IS IN THE SINGULAR NUMBER.

EXERCISE 8

*See Appendix B.

1. Give the singular and plural for the names of:
ten things in the house—
ten things on the beach—
ten things in a garden—
ten things in a shop.

*2. These nouns do not all make their plural in the same way: box, glass, brush, church, and all other nouns that end in *sh*, *ch*, *ss*, *x*, or *s*, add *es* to make the plural, because *s* alone could not be pronounced. Find six such words.

Teacher's note: For numbers 2-6, give the student time to think of the special plural words. He may not find as many as requested. Read the singular words found in the answer key aloud asking him to say its plural word. Show him the list so he may notice the changes. Writing out examples of each change is an option. Let the student choose two from each list. That should be plenty.

*3. In the same way "calfs" or "loafs" does not sound pleasant. So the *f* is changed into *v*, and *es* added—*calves*. Find four such words.

*4. Some nouns change in themselves, as *man* to *men*. Find four such words.

*5. Some nouns are the same for singular and plural, as *sheep*, *scissors*. Find four such words.

*6. Nouns that end in "y" (after a consonant) change the "y" into "i," and add *es*—"lady," "ladies." Find ten such words.

LESSON 9

We shall take our old sentences, only the subjects shall be plural.

The tables is round.

The walls is high.

The curtains is red.

Your ear tells you in a moment that it sounds wrong to use *is*. You want to change the verb *is* into *are*.

This is rather odd, for *is* and *are*, being both words of the verb *be*, have just the same meaning, only we always use *are* when speaking of more than one thing, that is, with plural nouns.

The reason is that the verb and the subject agree together so well that if the subject changes into the plural number, the verb does the same.

Notice, that you do not need to change the adjective.
You say:

The table is *round*, and

The tables are *round*.

It is only the verb and the subject that agree—if the subject is plural, the verb must be plural too.

To be learned.

THE VERB AND THE SUBJECT MUST AGREE. IF THE SUBJECT IS PLURAL, THE VERB CHANGES TO BE LIKE IT.



EXERCISE 9

*See Appendix B.

1. Make sentences about:

the boy, the girl, my cousin, the cat.

Change the subjects to make them plural, and alter the verbs.

2. Make sentences with *is* and an adjective about six things to be seen from the window.

- *3. Look at the picture. Put subjects to:

_____ is excited.

_____ are marching.

_____ are held by the soldiers.

_____ are waving.

_____ is being waved.

_____ is sitting on the window sill.

Say whether these subjects and the verbs are singular or plural.

LESSON 10

Most verbs change in rather an odd way, to match the subject. They do not change the word altogether, like *is* and *are* in the verb *be*, but only the last letter.

You noticed that most nouns are made plural by adding *s*.

Well, it seems as if the verb and the subject could have but one *s* between them.

When the noun is singular and does not want the *s*, we find it added to the verb.

The dog *walks*.

The boy *reads*.

But make *dog* plural, that is, put an *s* to it, and you will see that the verb can no longer keep its *s*. We cannot say "The dogs *walks*," but "The dogs *walk*."

To be learned.

MANY VERBS ARE MADE PLURAL BY TAKING "S" OFF THE SINGULAR.

EXERCISE 10

*See Appendix B.

1. Make sentences with singular nouns for subjects with these predicates: walk, run, jump, ride, sew, skip, dance.

You see it is necessary to add s to the verbs.

2. Now make those subjects plural.

The girls walks.

You find the verb must be altered again to agree with the subject.

The girls walk.

*3. Say which predicates require a singular and which a plural subject:

The family spends an autumn Saturday afternoon in the backyard.

_____ rakes the leaves.

_____ help.

_____ makes a big pile for us.

_____ jump into it.

_____ scatter.

_____ rake them back again.

_____ like autumn.

LESSON 11

Tom is good.

We speak of Tom.

That which we speak of is called the subject.

Because subjects are always the *names* of the things we speak of, they are in the *naming* case.

Case means condition. The noun that is spoken of is in the condition of being the subject. Because subjects are always

naming, nouns that are spoken of are in the *naming* case.

Can you remember the word the Roman people used for *name*? Turn the *a* into *o* and put an *n* at the end of our word, and you have it—*nomen*.

Just as we call our *name*-words nouns from the Latin word *nomen*, so we call our naming case *nomin*-ative case.

To be learned.

THAT OF WHICH WE SPEAK IS THE SUBJECT.

THE SUBJECT IS IN THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

NOMINATIVE MEANS NAMING.

EXERCISE 11

1. Look at the picture on the next page.

The boy sells. What case is *boy* in? Why?

The girl looks. What case is *girl* in? Why?

(Answer: Each is in the nominative case, because each is the subject of the sentence.)



2. Make sentences about twelve things, and say this about the subject each time.

3. Find the subjects to all the verbs in a page of your story book. Say in what case each one is and why.

4. Say of what number each verb on the page is, and why it is so.

Remember *nothing* but the subject is ever in the nominative case, because nothing else is the name of the thing of which we speak.

EXERCISE LESSON FOR NOUNS

John is good.

You can say four things about the word *John*.

John is a boy's name.

Name-words are called nouns.

So, *John* is a *noun*.

We speak about *John*.

That which we speak about is called the subject.

So, *John* is the *subject*.

The subject *names* the thing spoken of.

So, *John* is the naming case, or the *nominative case*.

John means a single boy.

When nouns mean single things they are in the singular number.

So *John* is in the *singular* number.

John. A noun.

The subject.

In the nominative case.

In the singular number.

The *boys* write.

Using the above list as a guide, say four things about *boys*.

The *girl* sews.

Say four things about *girl*.

Give the reason for each thing you say.

EXERCISE LESSON FOR VERBS

John *is* good.

Is good is what we tell about John.

Predicate means "to tell about."

Is good is the *predicate*.

Three things about *is*:

It is the word that makes a sentence (that is, makes sense) of the other two. "John good" is not sense. "John *is* good" is a sentence.

We know *is* must be the *verb*, because we cannot make sense without it.

It is about *being* something, so it is one of the words of the verb "Be."

John *is* singular.

The verb must be like the subject in number, so we use *is* because it is singular in number.

Is. A verb.

Part of the predicate.

A word of the verb "Be."

Singular number to be like "John."

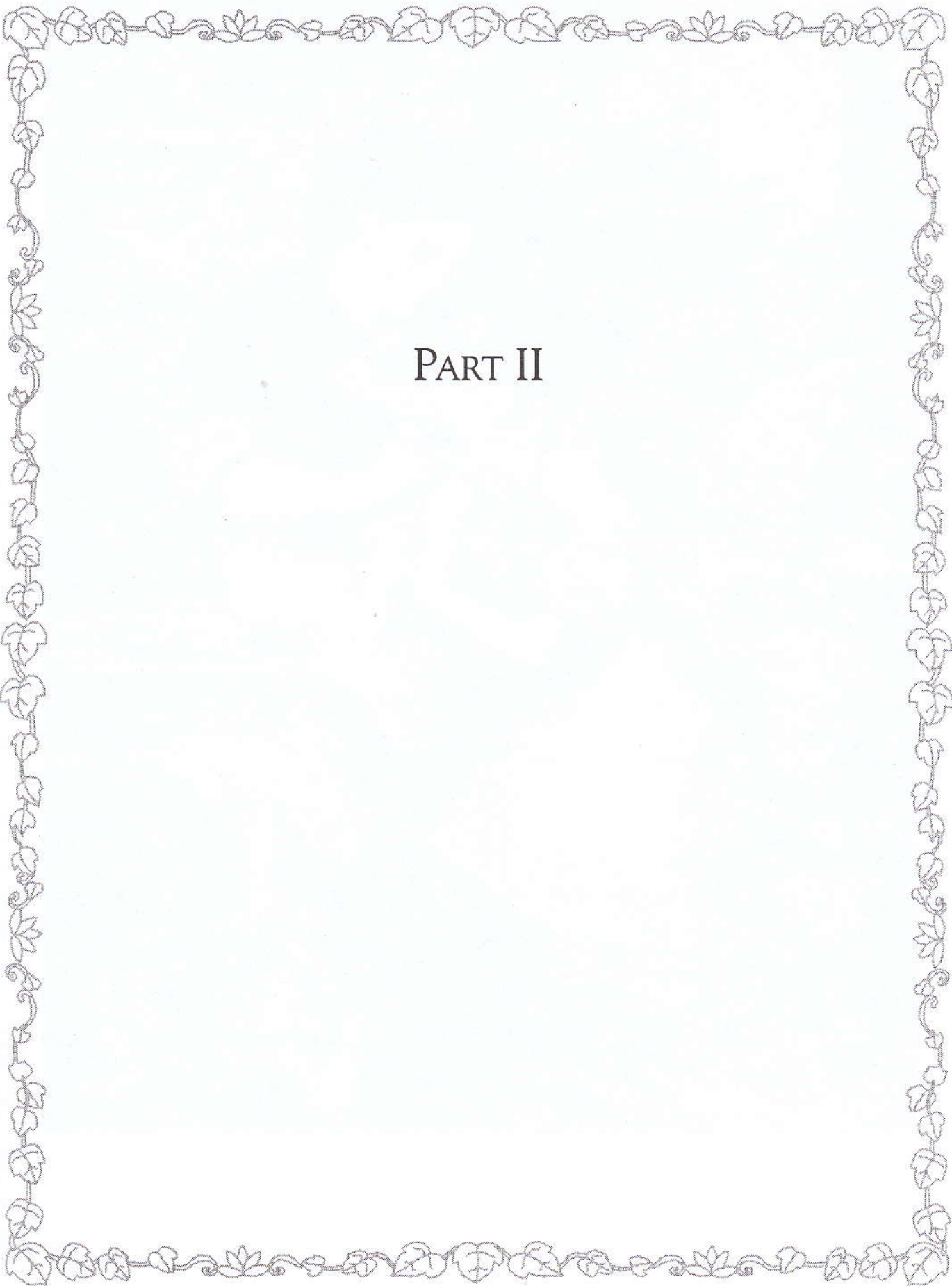
Apples *are* nice.

Using the above list as a guide, say four things about "are."

The boys *were* late.

Say four things about "were."

Give the reason for each thing you say.



PART II



LESSON 1

The orange *is* nice.

The orange *was* nice.

Is and *was*, you know, are both words of the verb *Be*. If you use the sentence with *is*, you speak of eating the orange *now*. If you say *was*, you speak of having eaten it at some time past.

The verb alone shows this difference in time; none of the other words change. You may always tell, by looking at the verb, whether a thing happens at this moment, or whether it is finished and done, or whether it is going to be done at some future time.

Now—this moment—we call the *present* time.

The minute that has just gone, and yesterday, is *past* time.

In a minute, and tomorrow, is *future* time—time yet to come.

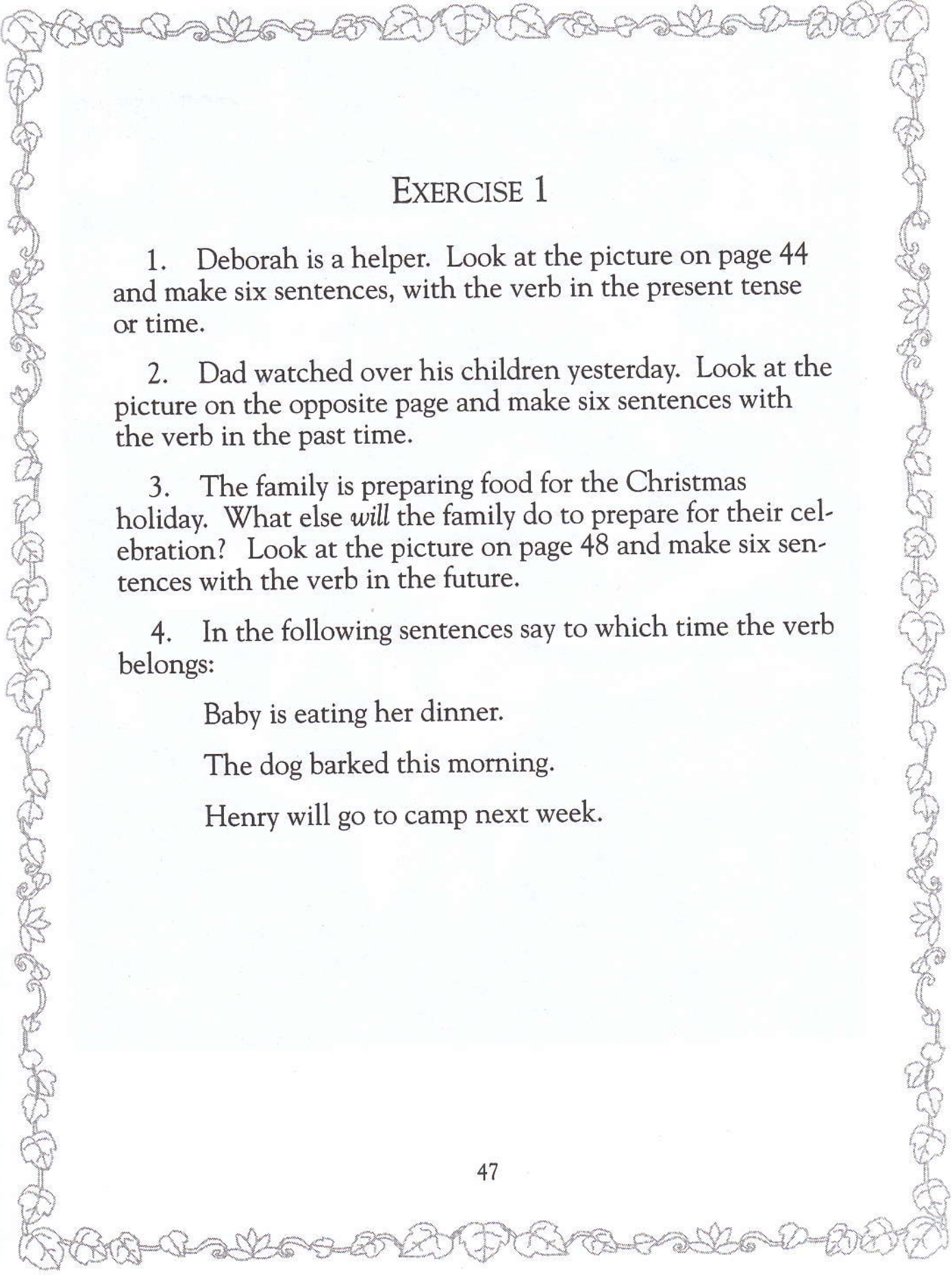
Verbs show these three times, so we say they have three tenses.

Tense is the Latin word for *time*.

To be learned.

VERBS HAVE SIX TENSES—THE THREE SIMPLE TENSES ARE PRESENT, PAST, AND FUTURE.





EXERCISE 1

1. Deborah is a helper. Look at the picture on page 44 and make six sentences, with the verb in the present tense or time.
2. Dad watched over his children yesterday. Look at the picture on the opposite page and make six sentences with the verb in the past time.
3. The family is preparing food for the Christmas holiday. What else *will* the family do to prepare for their celebration? Look at the picture on page 48 and make six sentences with the verb in the future.
4. In the following sentences say to which time the verb belongs:

Baby is eating her dinner.

The dog barked this morning.

Henry will go to camp next week.



LESSON 2

Other verbs do not change their tense for time as *is*, *was*, *are*, *were*, in the verb *Be*; but in a way which is called regular, as:

walk, walked

call, called

look, looked

Some verbs add *ed* to show the past time.

For some other verbs there is no rule; they change altogether, as *tell*, *told*, and *go*, *went*—words which you would hardly think belonged to each other at all.

Verbs cannot show the future time without help:

The boy *will* write.

The girl *will* go.

The orange *will* be nice.

The verbs *write* and *go* and *be* are helped by the verb *will* and they show the *future* time.

To be learned.

SOME VERBS ADD "ED" TO SHOW THE PAST TIME.

WHEN "WILL" GOES WITH A VERB IT SHOWS FUTURE TIME.

EXERCISE 2

*See Appendix B.

*1. How would you alter these words to make them speak of past time?

walk, laugh, talk, wait, wish, show.

These words? dance, hope, love, promise, smile, live.

2. Make six sentences with verbs that take *ed* or *d* for the past tense.

*3. Make sentences with these verbs in the past tense:

say, hit, call, poke, make.

How did the verb change?

4. Tell a story about the picture with verbs that have quite different words for the past tense. You may use some of these verbs:

see

do

stand

make

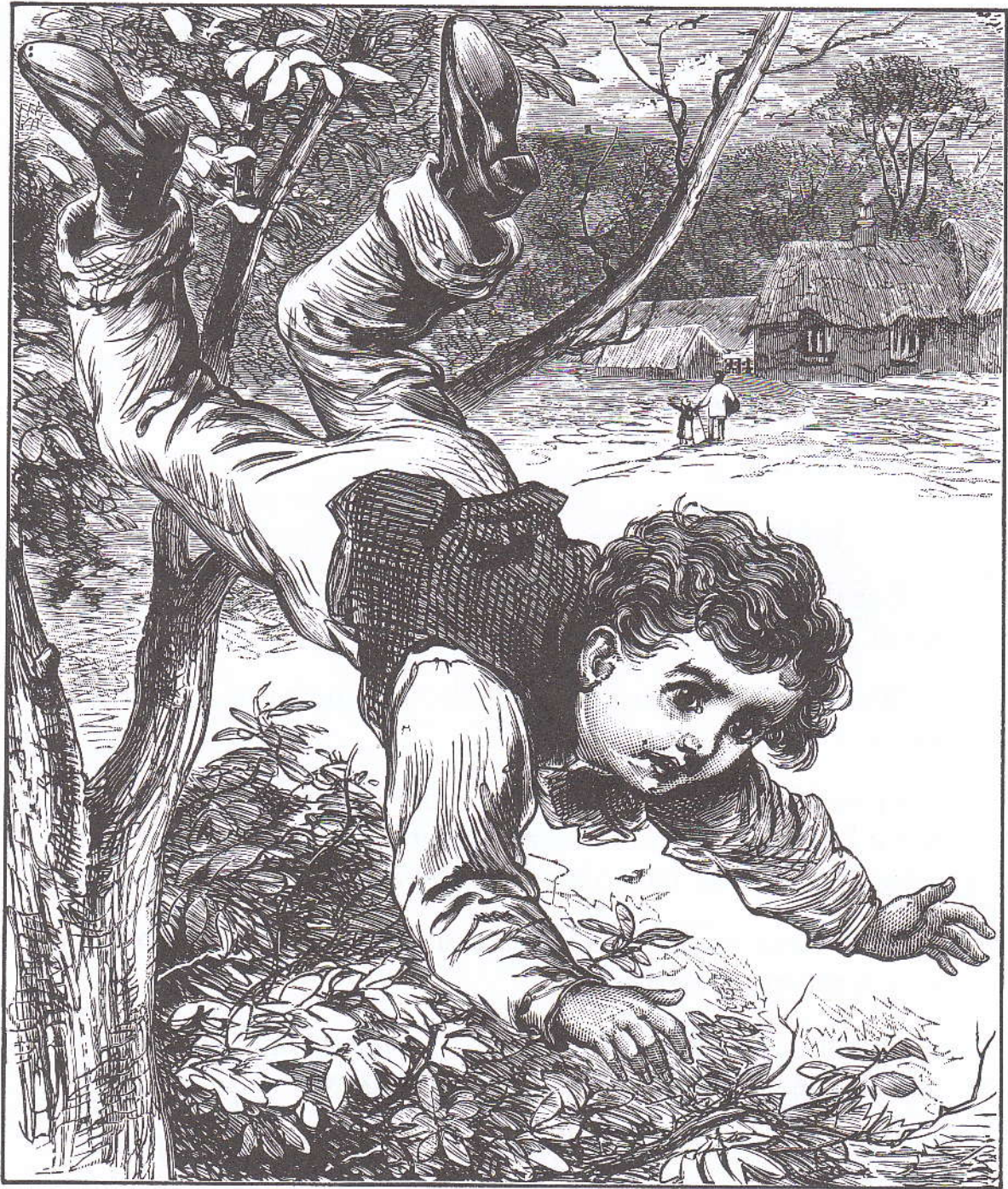
sit

can

fall

think

catch



LESSON 3

You remember that we may make a sentence with only two words—a noun (name-word) for the subject, and a verb for the predicate:

Birds sing.

John walks.

But there are some verbs that we cannot use without a noun (name-word) after them.

We cannot *touch* without touching something, or *take* without taking something.

Henry broke,——what? His cup, or his stick, or the jug; but if he breaks he must break something. So there are some actions that must pass over from the doer to something else.

This kind of verb is called *transitive*, a long Latin word which means to *pass over*.

If you tear your jacket, the action of tearing passes from you to the jacket, so *tear* is a transitive verb.

The other verbs we call *not-transitive*. As *transitive* is a Latin word, we also use the Latin word for *not*, which is *in*.

Tom sleeps.

He does not sleep anything; the action of sleeping stays with himself, so “sleeps” is an *intransitive* verb.

To be learned.

WHEN AN ACTION IS DONE TO SOME PERSON OR THING, THE
VERB IS TRANSITIVE.

TRANSITIVE MEANS TO PASS OVER.

THE ACTION PASSES.

EXERCISE 3

**See Appendix B.*

*1. Look at the picture on page 54 and put a transitive verb after each noun (name-word):

Three sisters _____ a walk with Mother.

Mother _____ the youngest sister.

One swan _____ its neck.

Lucy _____ it some bread.

A lady _____ a parasol

Carol _____ off her hat.

*2. Put three intransitive verbs after each of these nouns:

Peter, the baby, a bird, the farmer, Elizabeth.



LESSON 4

The noun (name-word) that comes after a transitive verb is called the OBJECT.

If you break your doll or cut your finger or take a walk, “doll” and “finger” and “walk” are the objects, because,

Doll is the object broken.

Finger is the object cut.

A *walk* is the object taken.

Now you have a new name for another part of a sentence.

That little boy (Subject)

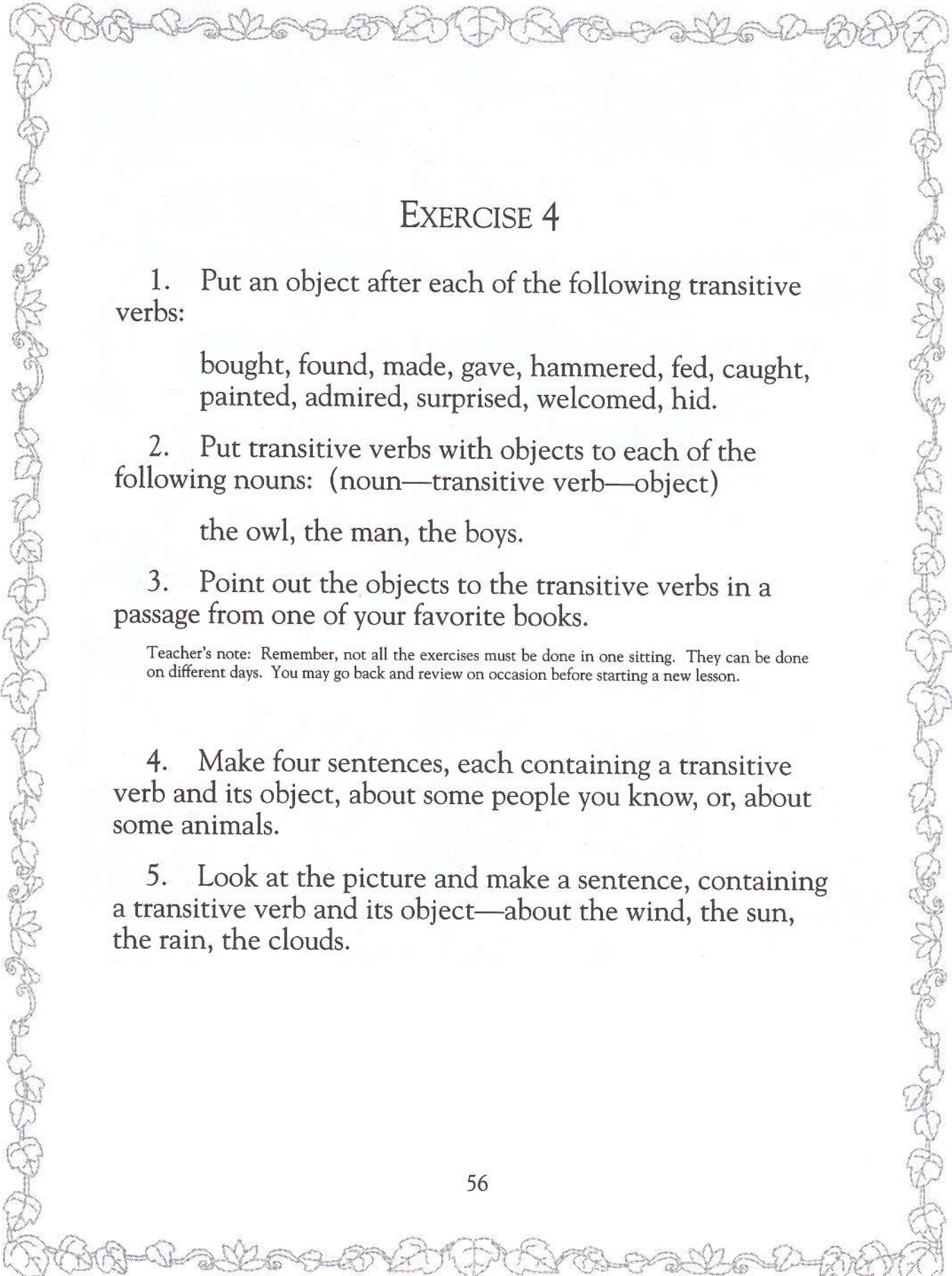
tore (Predicate)

his kite (the Object, which is part of the Predicate).

A transitive verb does not make sense without an object. John hurt—we want to know *what?*—his arm. Arm is therefore the object.

To be learned.

A TRANSITIVE VERB MUST HAVE AN OBJECT TO MAKE SENSE.



EXERCISE 4

1. Put an object after each of the following transitive verbs:

bought, found, made, gave, hammered, fed, caught,
painted, admired, surprised, welcomed, hid.

2. Put transitive verbs with objects to each of the following nouns: (noun—transitive verb—object)

the owl, the man, the boys.

3. Point out the objects to the transitive verbs in a passage from one of your favorite books.

Teacher's note: Remember, not all the exercises must be done in one sitting. They can be done on different days. You may go back and review on occasion before starting a new lesson.

4. Make four sentences, each containing a transitive verb and its object, about some people you know, or, about some animals.

5. Look at the picture and make a sentence, containing a transitive verb and its object—about the wind, the sun, the rain, the clouds.



LESSON 5

Mary plucked the flower.

Plucked what? the flower.

Flower is the object, without which "Mary plucked" would not be a sentence.

Flower, you know, is a *noun*.

Because it is a noun, it might also have adjectives.

Mary plucked *that bright blue* flower.

Mary plucked *some* flowers.

Mary plucked *a great many* flowers.

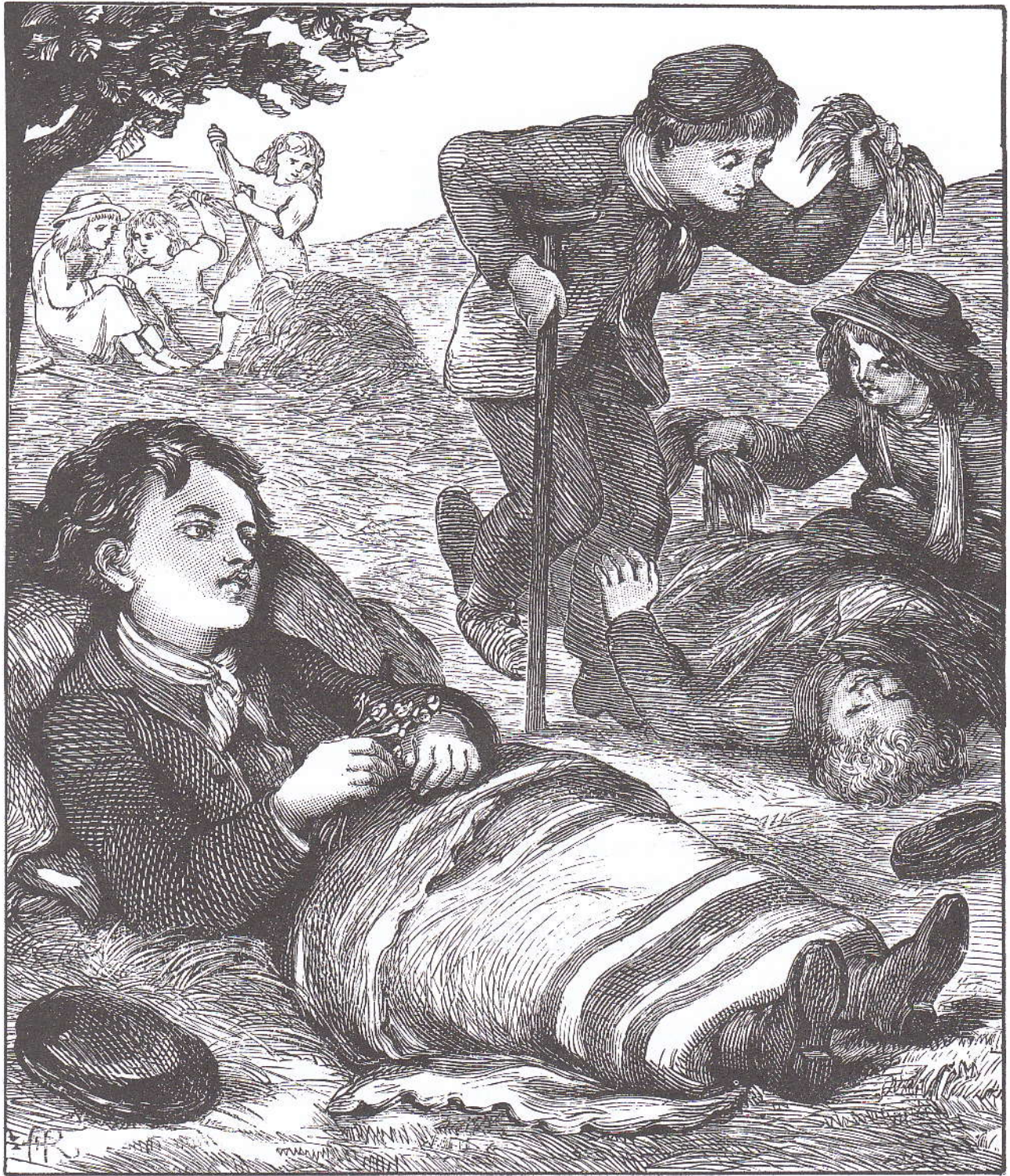
Because the noun (name-word) that comes after the transitive verb is always the object, it is in the objective case. That is, it is in the condition of being the object.

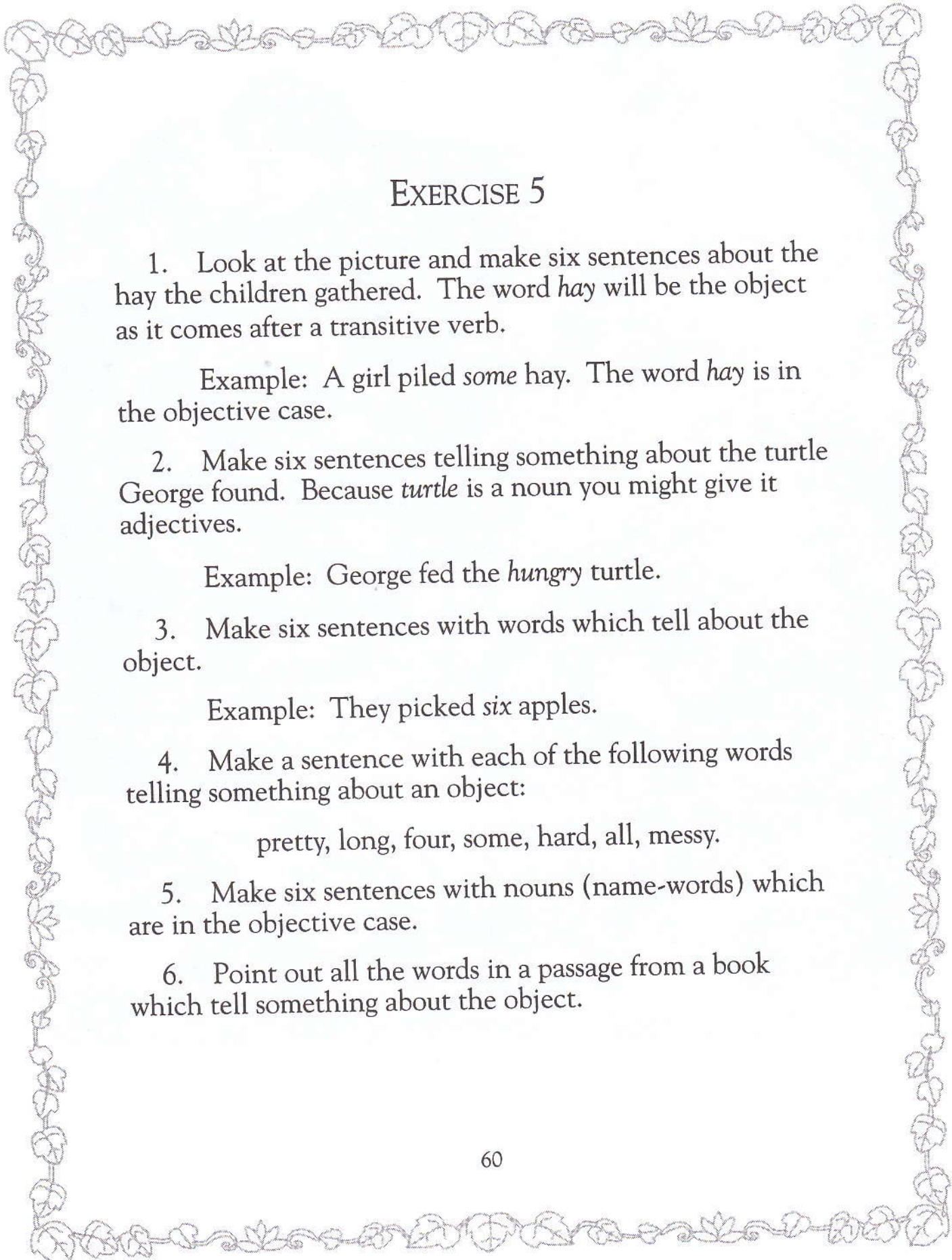
To be learned.

OBJECTS ARE NOUNS.

OBJECTS MAY HAVE WORDS BELONGING TO THEM.

OBJECTS ARE IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE





EXERCISE 5

1. Look at the picture and make six sentences about the hay the children gathered. The word *hay* will be the object as it comes after a transitive verb.

Example: A girl piled *some* hay. The word *hay* is in the objective case.

2. Make six sentences telling something about the turtle George found. Because *turtle* is a noun you might give it adjectives.

Example: George fed the *hungry* turtle.

3. Make six sentences with words which tell about the object.

Example: They picked *six* apples.

4. Make a sentence with each of the following words telling something about an object:

pretty, long, four, some, hard, all, messy.

5. Make six sentences with nouns (name-words) which are in the objective case.

6. Point out all the words in a passage from a book which tell something about the object.

LESSON 6

It sometimes happens that a noun has another noun, the name of a quite different thing, going before it as an adjective might.

This first noun is always written with an *s* after it—not joined to it as if it were plural, but with a comma between the *s* and the word.

A comma placed so is called an “apostrophe,” a word which means *to turn away*, and it is a sign that some letter has been turned away.

“The bird’s wing” was once “the birdes wing.”

The *e* has been turned away, and the *s* kept with an apostrophe (') to show the place of the *e*.

When two nouns come together in this way, the first thing, of which the name is written with the 's always owns the second.

“The dog’s collar”—the 's to “dog” shows that it owns or possesses the collar.

For this reason such nouns are said to be in the possessing or possessive case.

To be learned.

WHEN ONE THING OWNS ANOTHER THE NAME OF THE OWNING THING IS IN THE POSSESSIVE CASE.



EXERCISE 6

*See Appendix B.

Teacher's note: Since Exercise 6 is one of punctuation, some writing should accompany any spoken sentences.

1. Put to each of the following nouns (name-words), six nouns in the possessive case, such as:

The student's book.

My father's book.

Joshua's book. (etc).

book, toy, dress, chair, garden.

2. Give three nouns that can be owned by the following persons or things, such as:

The policeman's hat.

The policeman's whistle.

The policeman's moustache.

tiger, mother, tree, castle, baker.

3. Give a list of words in pairs, putting one of them in the possessive case, such as:

Bicycle ... boy, dog ... collar, toy ... child, man ...
car, ... woman ... garden, roller skates ... girl.

4. Open a favorite book and point out the nouns in the possessive case in different sentences. Say which is the possessor, and which is the object possessed.

*5. Look at the picture and make four sentences, each containing a noun in the possessive case. You may give the children names.

LESSON 7

These possessive nouns may go before the subject. We may say:

Mary's brother is tall.

Here "brother" is the thing we talk of, that is, the subject; and "Mary's" is the possessive noun that goes with it just as an adjective would.

Sometimes they go with the object:

Henry broke Lucy's cart.

Broke what? the cart, and "Lucy's" is the possessive noun that goes with the object as an adjective would.

"Lucy" and "cart" are, of course, different things, or Lucy could not own the cart.

If we were speaking of two or three boys, and said: "The boys' hats," we should put the apostrophe (') after the s, instead of before it. So we should know that it was two or three boys who owned hats, and not *one* boy.

To be learned.

POSSESSIVE NOUNS MAY GO WITH THE SUBJECT OR THE OBJECT.
PLURAL NOUNS HAVE THE APOSTROPHE (') AFTER THE S.

EXERCISE 7

1. Make four sentences with "Harry's dog," or "Emma's rabbit."

2. Make four sentences with "Emma's rabbit" for the object.

Example: You may hold Emma's rabbit.

3. Make four sentences with "Harry's dog" for the subject.

Example: Harry's dog chases chickens.

4. Supply two pairs of nouns to the following verbs:

found, seize, saw, caught.

5. Supply four nouns as subjects, with a noun in the possessive case, to the same verbs.

6. Supply the same pairs of nouns as objects, with a noun in the possessive case, to the same verbs.

7. Put the following pairs of nouns into the plural:

The boy's swing, the girl's book, the eagle's nest,
the kitten's milk.

Example: The cow's barn. The cows' barn. What happens to the apostrophe when we speak of two or more cows?

LESSON 8

Of course if two nouns that mean the *same* thing come together, they must be in the same case.

Laura the doll has a blue dress.

Here "Laura" and "doll" are two names for the same thing, and therefore both words are in the same case.

There is one verb about which rather an odd thing happens. The noun that goes before it and the noun that comes after it are always two different names for the same thing.

We say: *Henry* is a tall *boy*.

Hammers are useful *tools*.

Susie was a foolish *child*.

Henry and boy	}	are two names for the same thing.
Hammers and tools		
Susie and child		

You know that these words, *is* and *are* and *was* all belong to the verb *be* and it is nearly the only verb in which this happens.

The noun (name-word) before and the noun (name-word) after the verb *be* are always in the same case, because they are two words for the same thing.

For this reason a noun (name-word) after the verb *be* cannot be an object, but is just a part of the predicate.

To be learned.

DIFFERENT NAMES FOR THE SAME THING IN A SENTENCE ARE IN THE SAME CASE.

EXERCISE 8

**See Appendix B.*

*1. Mrs. Clarkson is my teacher.

A rose is a fragrant flower.

Bridgett is a neighbor.

What is the case of the above nouns? Why?

William the king has been crowned.

George the gardener has broken his leg.

Robin the pony has a long mane.

What is the case of the above nouns? Why?

2. Make six sentences with two nouns meaning the same thing, such as:

The boy Martin lost his ticket.

3. Dog, John, butcher, goat, grandmother.

Make sentences with the above nouns, adding other nouns to them which mean the same thing, as:

My dog Toby has a big collar.

4. Lost, gave, saw, went, threw, had.

Make sentences with the above verbs, putting two nouns meaning the same thing before each, as:

Our friend Robert plays chess.

Teacher's note: Remember, most of the sentences are to be made orally. Making sentences orally keeps the lessons short and allows the child to concentrate on sentence construction. However, the teacher may assign some written work after much oral work has been practiced.

5. John is _____.

A peach is _____.

I am going to be _____.

This flower is _____.

Put words after these words which will mean the same as "John," "peach," "I," "flower," such as:

John is a doctor.

6. Make sentences with the verb Be and the following pairs of nouns:

iron ... metal, Toby ... dog, Janet ... girl,
beaver ... rodent, Mrs. Russell ... pianist.

LESSON 9

You remember that verbs are of two kinds, the transitive verbs, that cannot make sense without an object, and the intransitive verbs, that cannot have an object:

Uncle went.

He could not *went* anything, because *went* is intransitive, and cannot have an object.

There is, however, a family of little words much attached to intransitive verbs, which, though they have not much meaning in themselves, are very useful, because one of them cannot come into a sentence without carrying an object after it.

"Uncle went" does not make very good sense. We must see what can be done to give it an object.

We cannot say: Uncle went New York, but Uncle went:

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| ——to New York. | ——over the wall. |
| ——with Aunt. | ——near the horse. |
| ——by train. | ——for a walk. |
| ——in the barn. | ——into his room. |
| ——through the fields. | ——beyond the Mississippi. |

These words always take objects after them, and because their place is before the object, they are called *prepositions*.

“Position,” you know is another word for *place*, and “pre-” is the Latin word for *before*.

To be learned.

A PREPOSITION ALWAYS HAS AN OBJECT AFTER IT.

EXERCISE 9

1. Complete the following sentences by supplying a preposition and its object:

The cow ran _____.

The bell rang _____.

The children sang _____.

Flowers grow _____.

Water flows _____.

2. Write sentences using the following prepositions, and underline their objects:

to, by, with, under, through, near, over, into.

3. Tell a story about the picture, introducing a preposition and its object into your sentences. You may refer to the list of prepositions in the lesson.

4. Pick out the prepositions and their objects from a page in one of your reading books. Write them in two columns opposite one another.



LESSON 10

Prepositions and their objects do not always come into a sentence as the friends of the predicate.

Sometimes they belong to the subject:

The mouse *under the chair* is frightened.

The house *on the hill* has green shutters.

The cow *in the barn* gives sweet milk.

Sometimes they belong to the object:

Dad fixed the door *with the broken handle*.

Mother bought the shoes *on the sale table*.

Indeed they are very civil and come into a sentence just where they are wanted, only on one condition: the two must always go together; you cannot have a preposition without its object.

As the nouns (name-words) that come after prepositions are one kind of object, they are in the objective case.

To be learned.

ALL OBJECTS ARE IN THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

EXERCISE 10

*See Appendix B.

1. Supply prepositions to complete the following sentences:

Colin came _____ the room.

The road ran _____ the fields.

Birds sing _____ spring.

The books were arranged _____ the table.

Weeping willows grow _____ the stream.

2. Use the following prepositions in sentences:

through, by, in, under, near, to, for, beyond, with, on.

- *3. Find the prepositions in the following sentences, and say whether they belong to the predicate, subject, or object:

The house was built near the river.

Gather your flowers with long stalks.

The bird on the roof is a starling.

Near the mill runs the stream.

4. Tell a story about the picture on the next page using a different preposition in each sentence.

5. Write six sentences, two in which the preposition belongs to the predicate, two in which it belongs to the subject, and two in which it belongs to the object.

Teacher's note: Numbers 3 and 5 may seem difficult to the younger student. Number 5 may be done at a separate sitting.



PART III

LESSON 1

We have used "to" as a preposition, but it can only be a preposition when it goes before its object.

We often find "to" before a verb; then it is not a preposition, but just a little sign belonging to the verb, and showing in what way it is used.

There are different ways or modes of using a verb.

You may use a verb with "to" before it:

He learns *to write*.

You may be in doubt about it:

If he write a page.

Or you may tell him to

Write.

These different ways or modes of using a verb are called *moods*.

To be learned.

VERBS ARE USED IN DIFFERENT WAYS.

THESE WAYS ARE CALLED MOODS.

LESSON 2

When a verb has "to" before it, it cannot have a subject, so it cannot be either singular or plural. Also, because such verbs cannot have subjects, they cannot be predicates. Neither do they show anything about time—whether the action is past, present, or yet to come.

For these reasons we say that verbs with "to" before them are in the *infinitive* mood. Therefore we cannot say much about them.

Indeed these infinitive moods are more like nouns (name-words) than anything else.

They are the names of the verbs. If we wish to speak of a verb, we call it the verb *to be*, or the verb *to write*, or the verb *to go*, just as we should say—the dog Rover, the man, etc.

Because infinitive moods are like nouns (name-words), we often find one makes a subject, as if it were a noun. We say:

To swing is great fun.

The thing we speak of is *to swing*, and it is the subject.

Sometimes an infinitive mood makes an object:

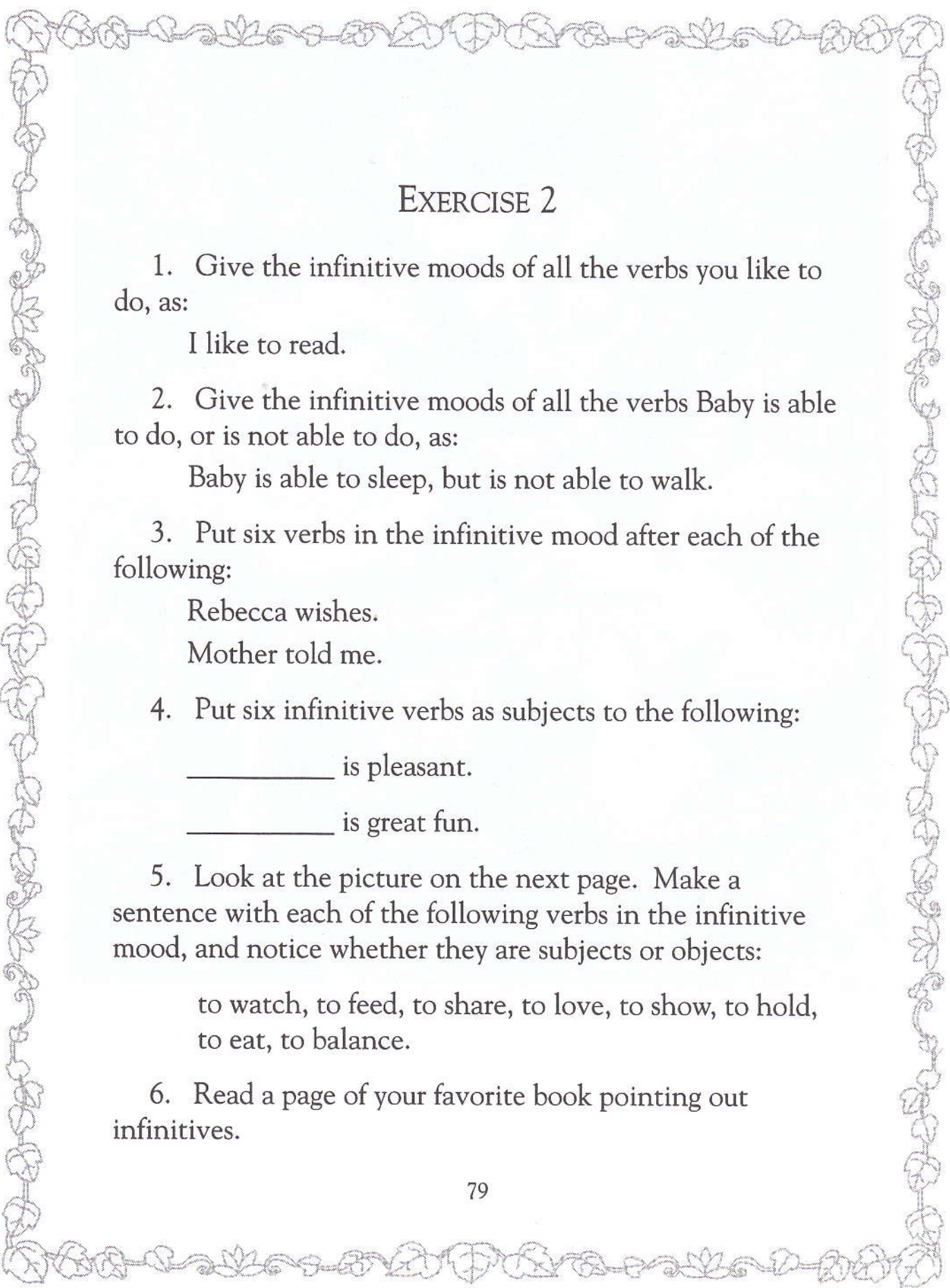
I like *to read*.

I like what? *to read*. *To read* is the object of "like."

To be learned.

INFINITIVE MOODS ARE THE NAMES OF THE VERBS.

THEY MAY BE SUBJECTS OR OBJECTS OF SENTENCES.



EXERCISE 2

1. Give the infinitive moods of all the verbs you like to do, as:

I like to read.

2. Give the infinitive moods of all the verbs Baby is able to do, or is not able to do, as:

Baby is able to sleep, but is not able to walk.

3. Put six verbs in the infinitive mood after each of the following:

Rebecca wishes.

Mother told me.

4. Put six infinitive verbs as subjects to the following:

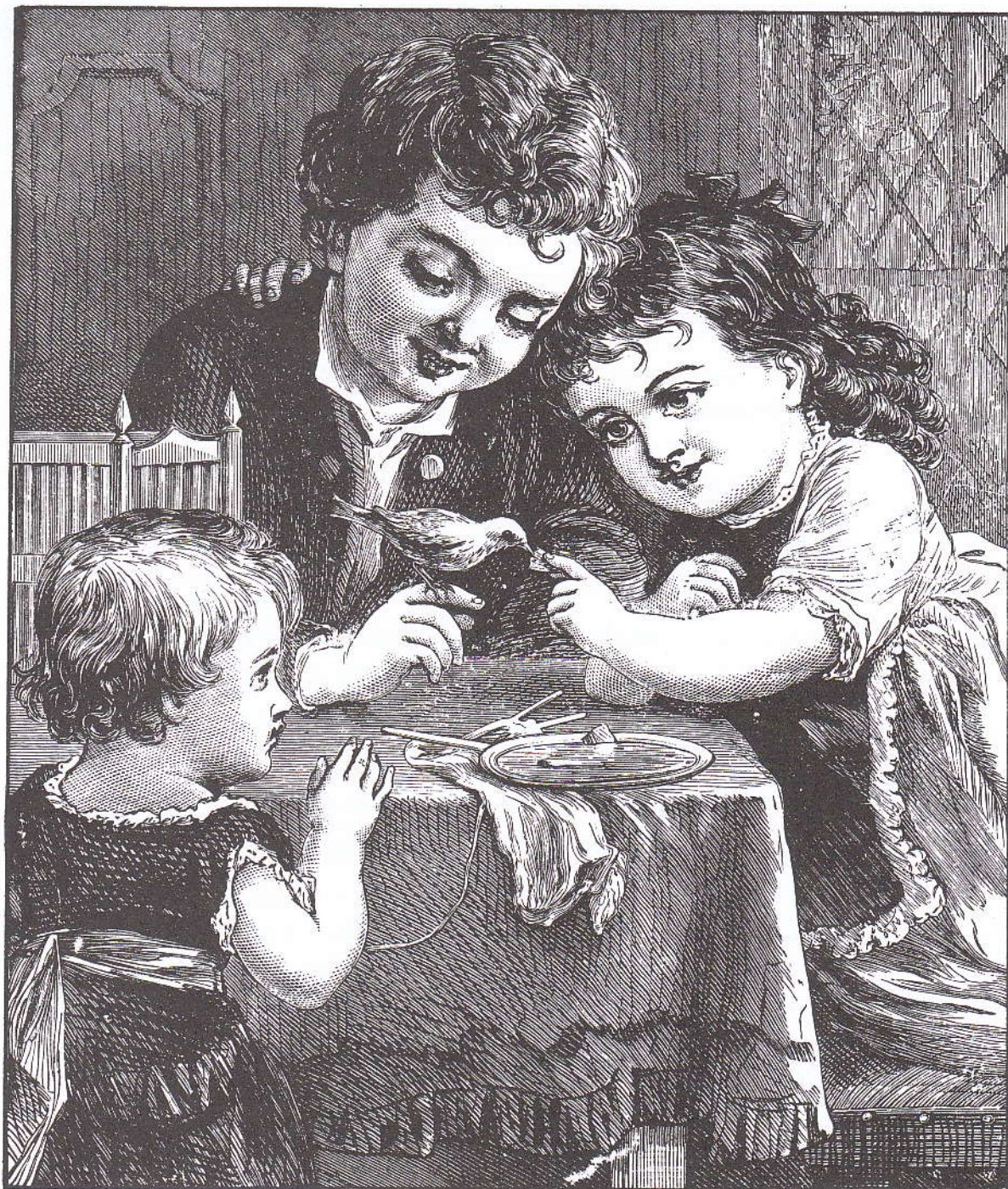
_____ is pleasant.

_____ is great fun.

5. Look at the picture on the next page. Make a sentence with each of the following verbs in the infinitive mood, and notice whether they are subjects or objects:

to watch, to feed, to share, to love, to show, to hold,
to eat, to balance.

6. Read a page of your favorite book pointing out infinitives.



LESSON 3

The next is the mood that tells or declares what happens:

We walk.

They walked.

I am walking.

He will walk.

These verbs are all in the declaring mood, as they just say what takes place.

This mood is called *indicative*, which is another word for *declaring*. These verbs *indicate* what takes place.

The indicative mood also asks questions.

Indicative moods are always predicates, and always have subjects. When a question is asked, the subject comes after the verb, instead of before it:

Is Charles a good boy?

2 1

To be learned.

VERBS THAT HAVE SUBJECTS ARE IN THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

EXERCISE 3

1. Look at the picture. Put three different verbs that declare something after each of the following words (The dog..., the doll ..., the dogs ..., one girl...) such as:

The dog growls.

2. Change each of the sentences into the form of a question, as:

The dog growls. Does the dog growl?

3. Put the following two into sentences containing the same noun (name-word), with the verb in the indicative mood:

Charles—to walk. (Charles is walking).

The dog—to growl.

The bird—to sing.

4. Put the same sentences into the form of a question, as:

Charles is walking. Is Charles walking?

5. Make two sentences with the verb in the indicative mood after each of the following subjects, (a) declaring, (b) questioning, such as:

The horse with the long tail _____.

(declaring) The horse with the long tail is trotting.

(questioning) Is the horse with the long tail trotting?

The white cat _____. The sly fox _____.

The lame duck _____. The red hen _____.

The bumble bee _____. The polar bear _____.

6. Find all the verbs in the indicative mood in two paragraphs of a reading book.



LESSON 4

Indicative moods have another form.

You may declare a thing with a wish or a doubt—If he try he will succeed. This form always has “if” or “though” or some other doubting word before the subject. For this reason it is called the *subjunctive* mood. “Subjunctive” means *doubtful*.

To be learned.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE FORM HAS “IF” OR “WISH” BEFORE IT.

WHEN THE VERB DECLARES WITH A DOUBT IT IS IN THE SUBJUNCTIVE FORM.

EXERCISE 4

*See Appendix B.

This may not sound like the way we talk; nevertheless it is proper English.

1. The verbs in the subjunctive form in the following sentences are in italics:

He would be taller if he *were* older.

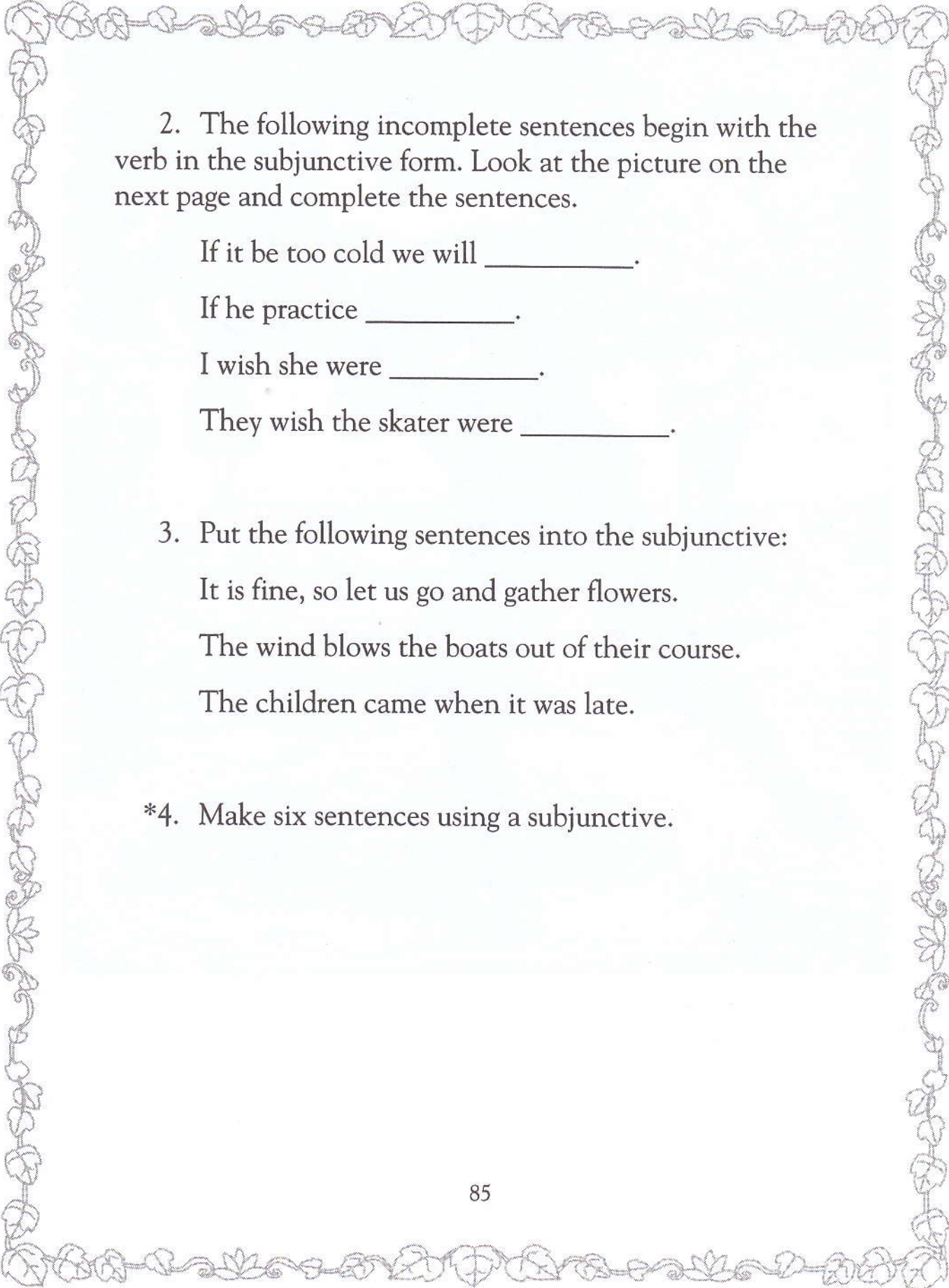
If it *be* warm we will have a picnic.

If it *should* rain the sports will be postponed.

I wish summer *were* here.

If you *be* still I can pull the splinter out more easily.

If you *be* quiet you may hear the robin’s song.



2. The following incomplete sentences begin with the verb in the subjunctive form. Look at the picture on the next page and complete the sentences.

If it be too cold we will _____.

If he practice _____.

I wish she were _____.

They wish the skater were _____.

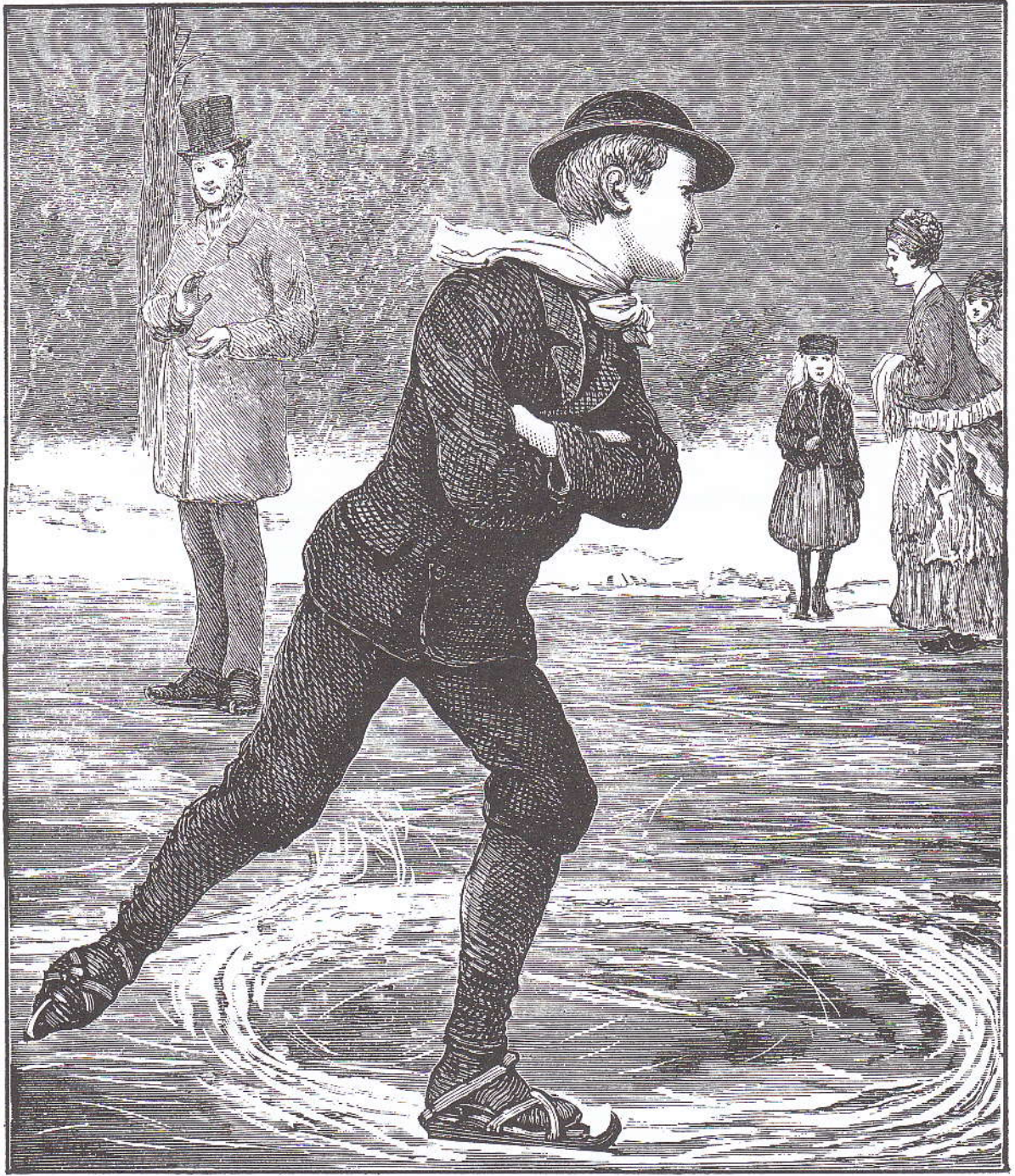
3. Put the following sentences into the subjunctive:

It is fine, so let us go and gather flowers.

The wind blows the boats out of their course.

The children came when it was late.

*4. Make six sentences using a subjunctive.



LESSON 5

There is one more way of using a verb.

It may be used to make a request, or to command. It is rather odd that we use just the same words for a request or a command,— the difference is in the tone of voice. “Come here” may be a request or a command, according to who says it and how it is said.

As the verb is the same in both cases, this way of using it is called the commanding mood.

You very likely know that “imperative” is another word for *commanding*.

The *imperative* mood is always a predicate, but an odd thing about it is that its subject is missing.

We say:

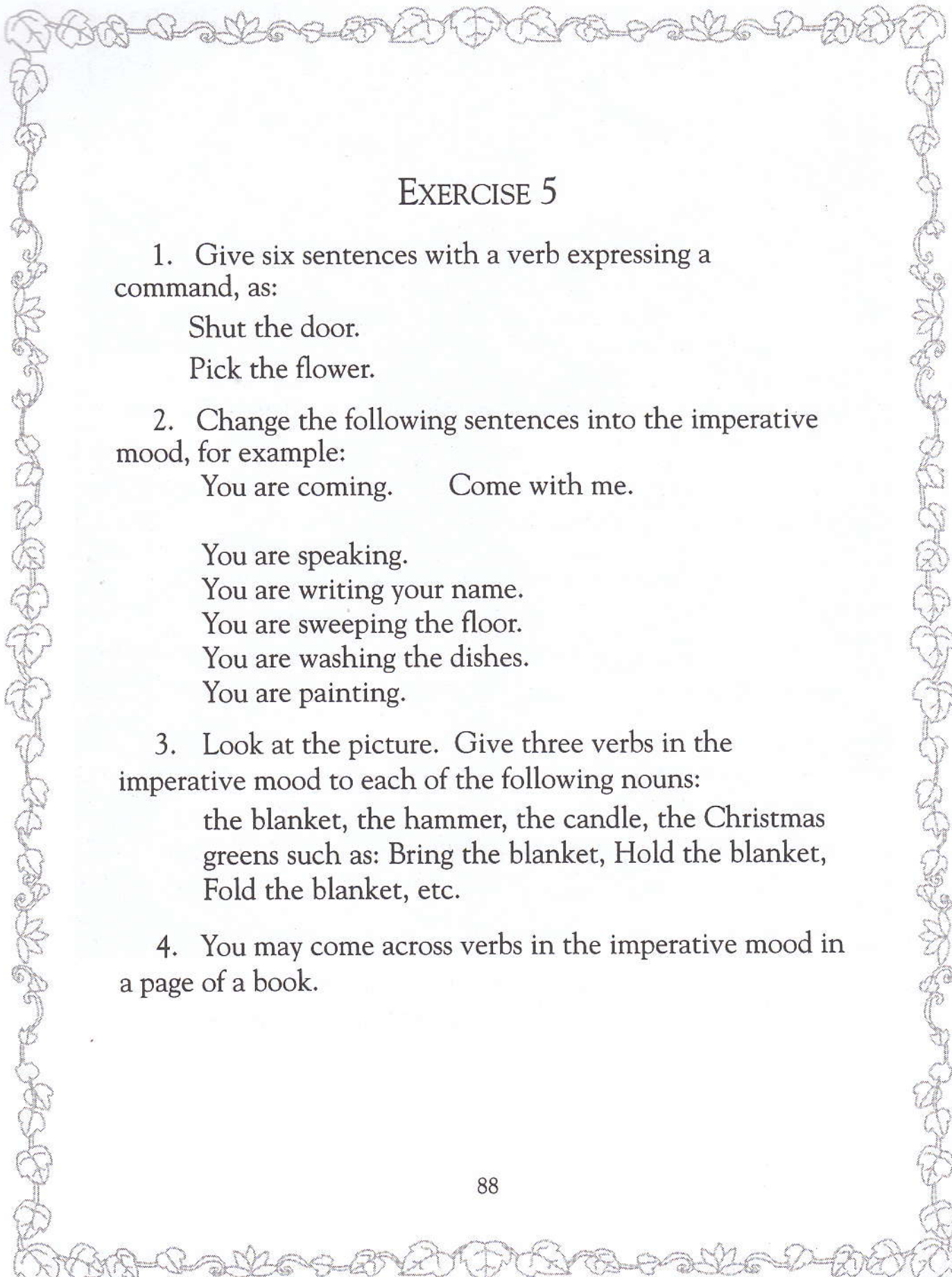
Come here.

Sit down.

Of course we mean: You come here. You sit down. But the subject is always understood.

To be learned.

WHEN THE VERB COMMANDS IT IS IN THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.
THE IMPERATIVE MOOD HAS A SUBJECT THAT IS IMPLIED.



EXERCISE 5

1. Give six sentences with a verb expressing a command, as:

Shut the door.

Pick the flower.

2. Change the following sentences into the imperative mood, for example:

You are coming. Come with me.

You are speaking.

You are writing your name.

You are sweeping the floor.

You are washing the dishes.

You are painting.

3. Look at the picture. Give three verbs in the imperative mood to each of the following nouns:

the blanket, the hammer, the candle, the Christmas greens such as: Bring the blanket, Hold the blanket, Fold the blanket, etc.

4. You may come across verbs in the imperative mood in a page of a book.



LESSON 6

The predicate often has another part besides the object.

A word joined to the predicate to tell something about the action, as *where* or *when* it happens, or *how* it is done, is called a *modifier*. To modify a word means *to measure* or limit its meaning.

Henry, come *here*.

Henry, come *now*.

Come to me *quickly*.

Do it *at once*.

Here, *now*, *quickly*, *at once*, are *modifiers* that show how, where, or when the action is done.

A predicate may have two or three *modifiers* belonging to it, such as:

Bring it *here*, *carefully*, *today*.

To be learned.

PREDICATES MAY HAVE MODIFIERS.

MODIFIERS SHOW SOMETHING ABOUT THE ACTION, AS HOW, WHERE, OR WHEN IT IS DONE.

EXERCISE 6

*See Appendix B.

*1. Show which are the modifiers in the following sentences:

Henry walks slowly.

The owl flew into the barn.

Yesterday the dog bit the mail carrier.

Mary ran outside quickly.

2. Tell a story about the picture on the next page. Make sentences using a modifier with each of the following verbs:

smells, runs, steps, grabs, cuts, extinguishes, such as:

The girl smells the smoke at once.

Teacher's note: Record the student's sentences. Have him point out the modifiers. Or, the student may write these sentences himself.

Remember to tell something about the action, as where or when it happens, or how it is done.

3. Make sentences with the following modifiers:

down the well, too fast, in the house, awkwardly,
by the window, later on, this evening, laughingly.

4. Give four sentences with predicates which have more than one modifier, such as:

The child is crying bitterly in the road now.

5. Give four sentences with modifiers showing "when?"

6. Give four sentences with modifiers showing "where?"

7. Give four sentences with modifiers showing "how?"

8. Point out all the modifiers in a page of a book.



LESSON 7

These modifiers—words added to the verbs—are mostly *adverbs*. “Ad-verbs” get their name because they are added to verbs.

Adverbs are of just the same use to verbs that adjectives are to nouns. Indeed, by changing adjectives a very little, we may turn them into adverbs.

A *beautiful* song.

“Beautiful” is an adjective, and belongs to the noun “song.”

She sings *beautifully*.

“Beautifully” is an adverb, and belongs to the verb “sings.”

Describing adjectives may be changed into adverbs by adding “ly” to them: Careful—carefully.

Describing adverbs show *how* actions are done.

Number adjectives may be made into adverbs in the same way: First—firstly.

Adverbs also show—

Place, as: Lay it *down there*.

Time, as: Come *soon*.

To be learned.

ADVERBS KEEP VERBS AS ADJECTIVES KEEP TO NOUNS.

ADVERBS MODIFY VERBS.

ADJECTIVES MODIFY NOUNS.



EXERCISE 7

*See Appendix B.

1. Put six adverbs to each of the following verbs:

sings, plays, writes, goes.

John sings fast, often, now, nicely, quietly, etc.

2. Turn these adjectives into adverbs by adding *ly*:

loud, polite, boastful, nice, beautiful, quiet, brave,
wonderful, cautious, graceful, perfect, quick.

- *3. Give six sentences containing describing adverbs,
such as:

The eagle sees clearly.

The mouse runs quietly.

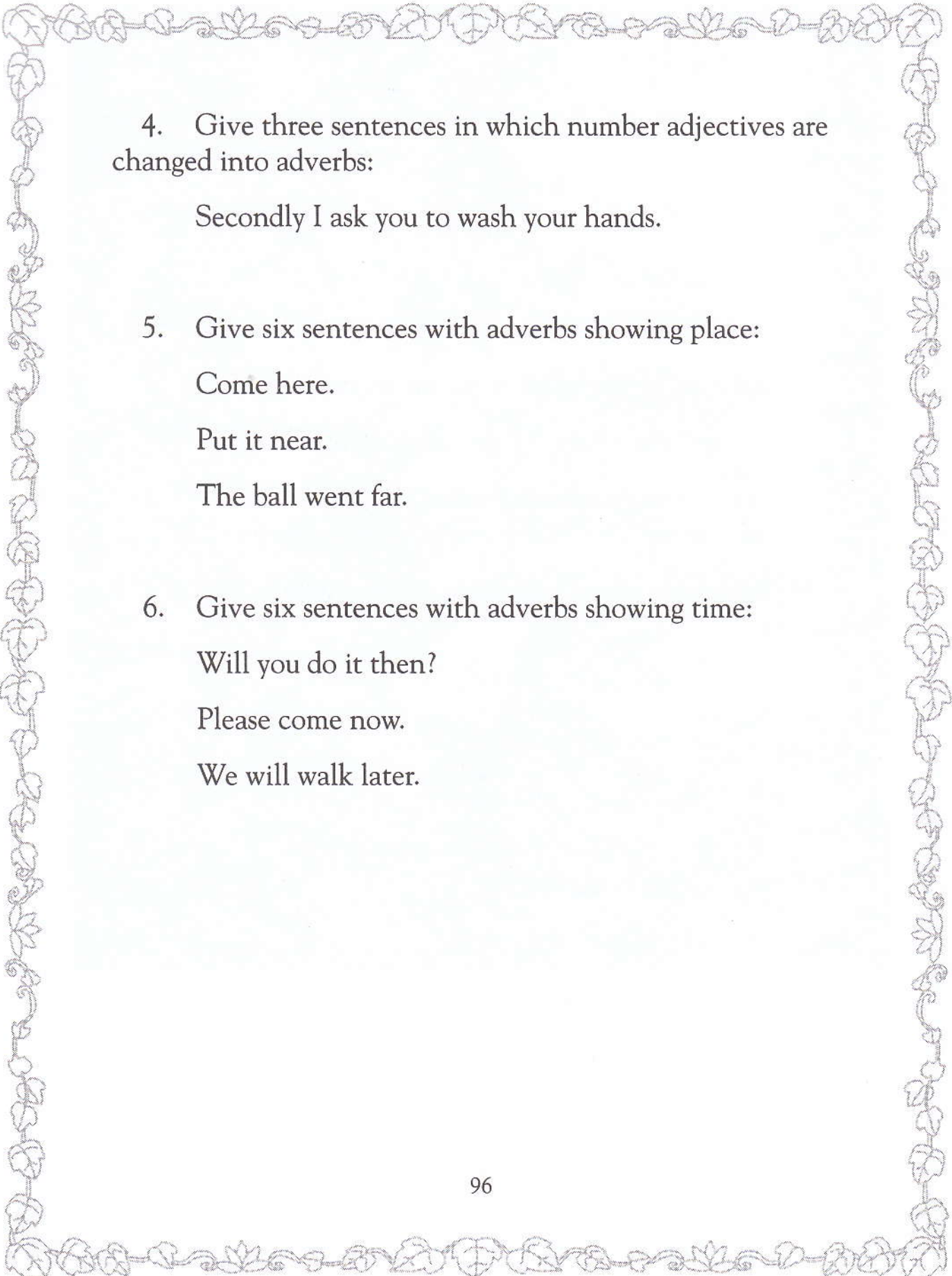
We pray thankfully.

Look at the picture and complete the sentences
supplying describing adverbs to:

The boys climbed _____.

They can both see _____.

The birds flutter _____.

- 
4. Give three sentences in which number adjectives are changed into adverbs:

Secondly I ask you to wash your hands.

5. Give six sentences with adverbs showing place:

Come here.

Put it near.

The ball went far.

6. Give six sentences with adverbs showing time:

Will you do it then?

Please come now.

We will walk later.

LESSON 8

An adverb is a short way of saying two or three words.

If we could not say *here*, we must say *in this place*.

If we could not say *now*, we must say *at this time*.

If we could not say *nicely*, we must say *in a nice manner*.

That is, we should use a preposition and its object where we now use an adverb.

As adverbs are so much shorter, we use them when we can. Still it often happens that prepositions and their objects come in as the modifiers to the predicate instead of adverbs.

Put your book *on the table*.

Put it where? on the table.

I will come *in a minute*.

I will come when? in a minute.

To be learned.

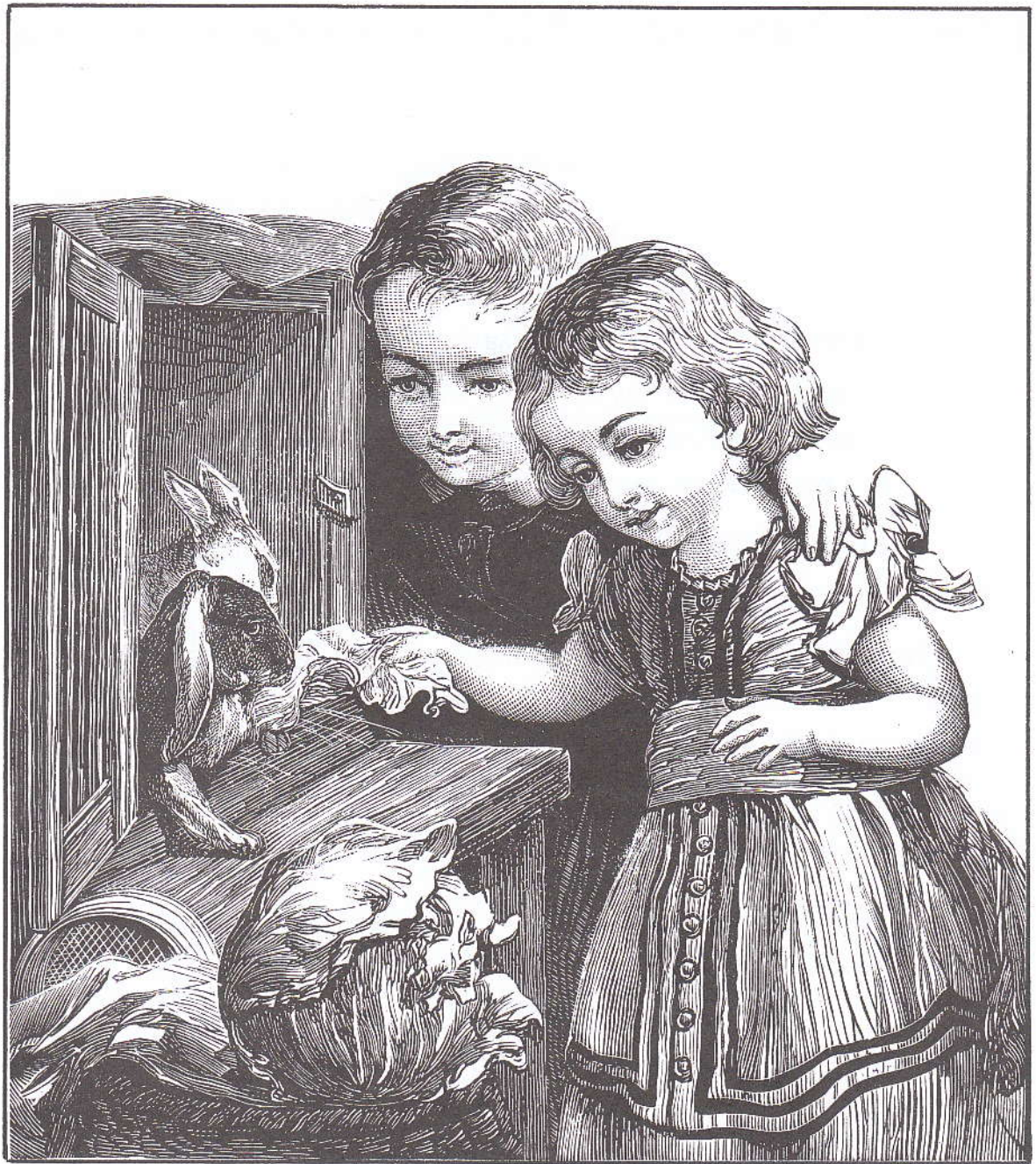
PREPOSITIONS AND THEIR OBJECTS ARE USED AS MODIFIERS.

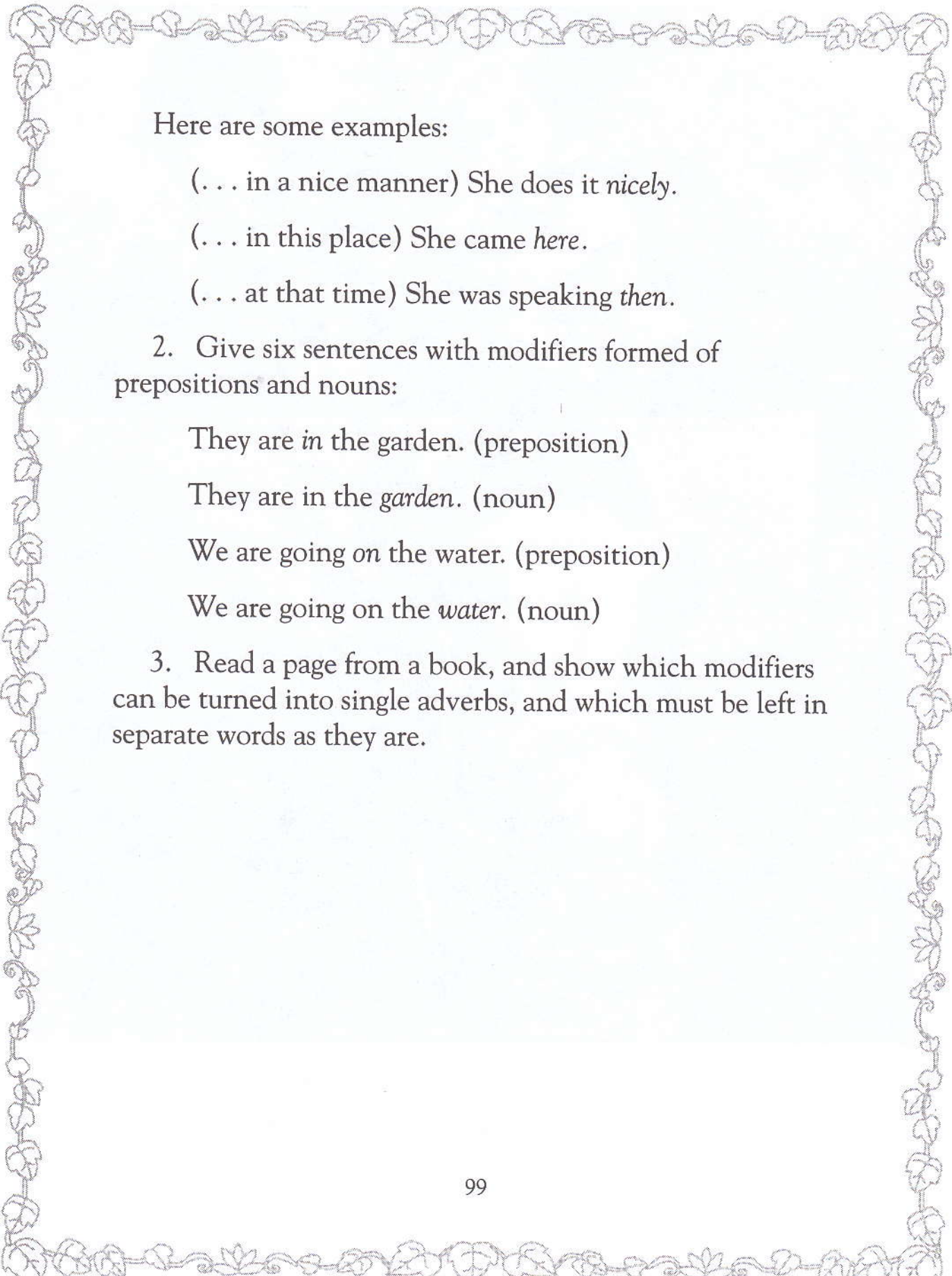
EXERCISE 8

1. Tell about the picture on the next page using the following modifiers as expressed by one adverb:

at the cage, in a gentle manner, with no noise.

the last thing done, etc.





Here are some examples:

(... in a nice manner) She does it *nicely*.

(... in this place) She came *here*.

(... at that time) She was speaking *then*.

2. Give six sentences with modifiers formed of prepositions and nouns:

They are *in* the garden. (preposition)

They are in the *garden*. (noun)

We are going *on* the water. (preposition)

We are going on the *water*. (noun)

3. Read a page from a book, and show which modifiers can be turned into single adverbs, and which must be left in separate words as they are.



LESSON 9

Though adverbs truly belong to verbs, they often make themselves very useful to adjectives also.

If a girl is pretty, and we wish to say *how much* so, then the adverb helps:

Very pretty.

Exceedingly pretty.

So pretty.

Rather pretty.

Truly pretty.

Most pretty.

Quite pretty.

To be learned.

ADVERBS MAY BELONG TO ADJECTIVES.

EXERCISE 9

1. Look at the picture with the horse. Add four adverbs to each of the following adjectives:

The horse was _____ fast.

The road was _____ bumpy.

The wagon was _____ old.

The children were _____ brave.

2. Give four adjectives after each of the following adverbs:

Her hat is rather _____.

The boy is very _____.

The tree is most _____.

She felt somewhat _____.

3. What baby do you know? Say six things about Baby, using an adjective and an adverb:

Baby is _____.

4. Make four sentences about each of the following nouns, containing an adjective and an adverb:

the owls, the toad, the cat.

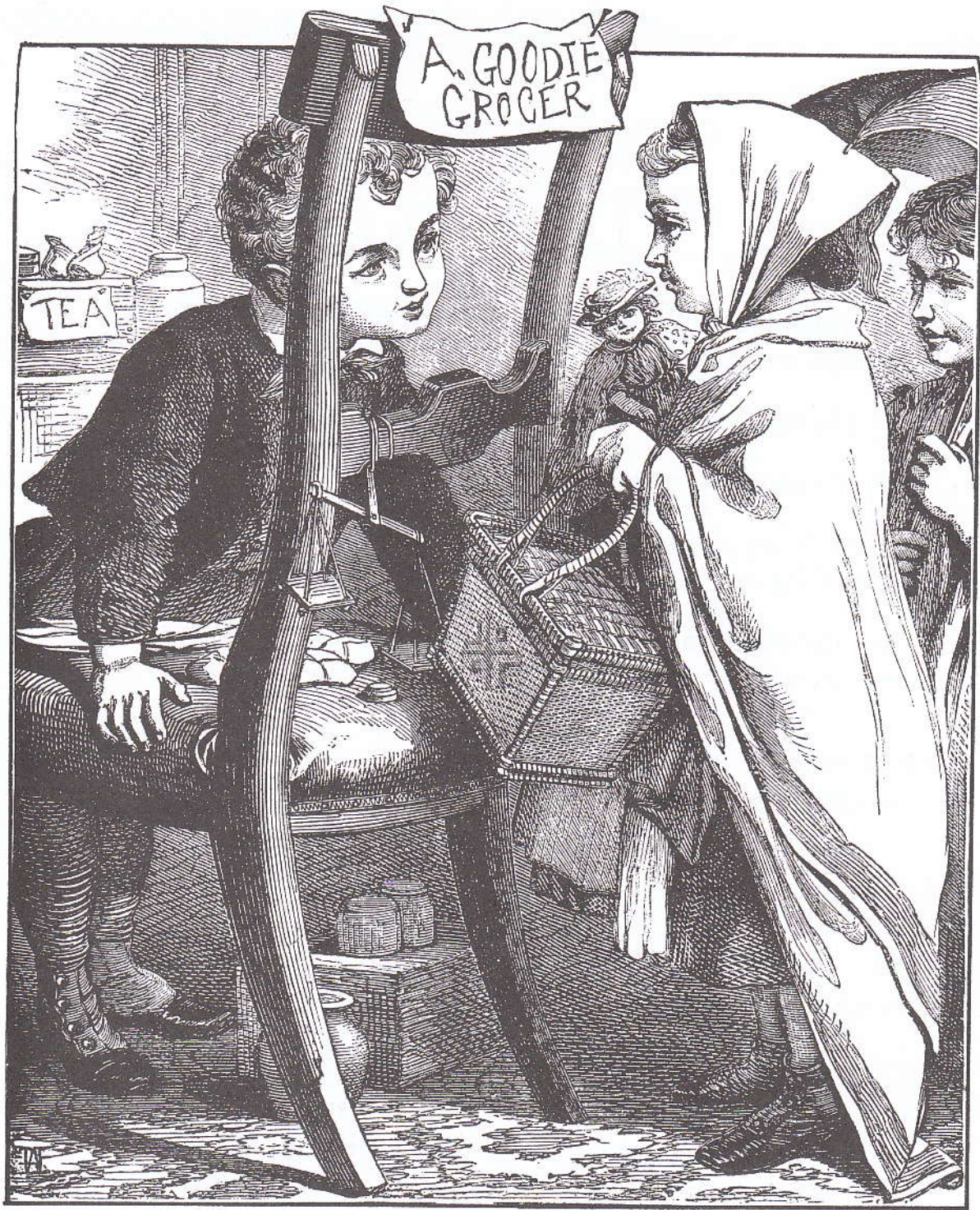
5. Make four sentences, bringing in the following adverbs:

very, rather, too, more, most.

6. Tell a story about the children who are playing grocery store in the picture. Mention the adverbs and adjectives you have just used in talking.

7. Turn to the pages of your favorite scene in a story you read last year. See if you can find the adverbs in a paragraph from that scene.

Teacher's note: You may record the story in number 6. When the story is read aloud it will be easier to recognize the adverbs and adjectives.



LESSON 10

Adverbs also help each other in the same way as they help adjectives, by showing *how much* so.

He reads *well*.

He reads *very* well.

Here “very” belongs to the other adverb “well” and shows how well he reads.

In the same way we might say *so* well, *remarkably* well, *extremely* well, *how* well he reads, and so on.

To be learned.

ADVERBS MAY BELONG TO OTHER ADVERBS.

EXERCISE 10

1. Supply two adverbs before each of the following adverbs:

Here is an example to follow:

The ice cream melted *rather* quickly.

The ice cream melted *somewhat* quickly.

She plays _____ politely.

The cow moves _____ slowly.

The kite flies _____ high.

Graham writes _____ carelessly.

Jessie spoke _____ harshly.

The horses trotted _____ noisily.

The deer walked _____ quietly.

2. Supply describing adverbs after each of the following:

The dog barks very _____.

The cat scratches rather _____.

The baby talks a little _____.

The boys called so _____.

She spoke to me exceedingly _____.

3. Supply two adverbs after each of the following:

Katherine skates _____.

Jennifer rides _____.

The grass is growing _____.

The flowers are opening _____.

4. Give four sentences for each of the following, with a verb and two adverbs:

Benjamin and the gardener.

The white cat.

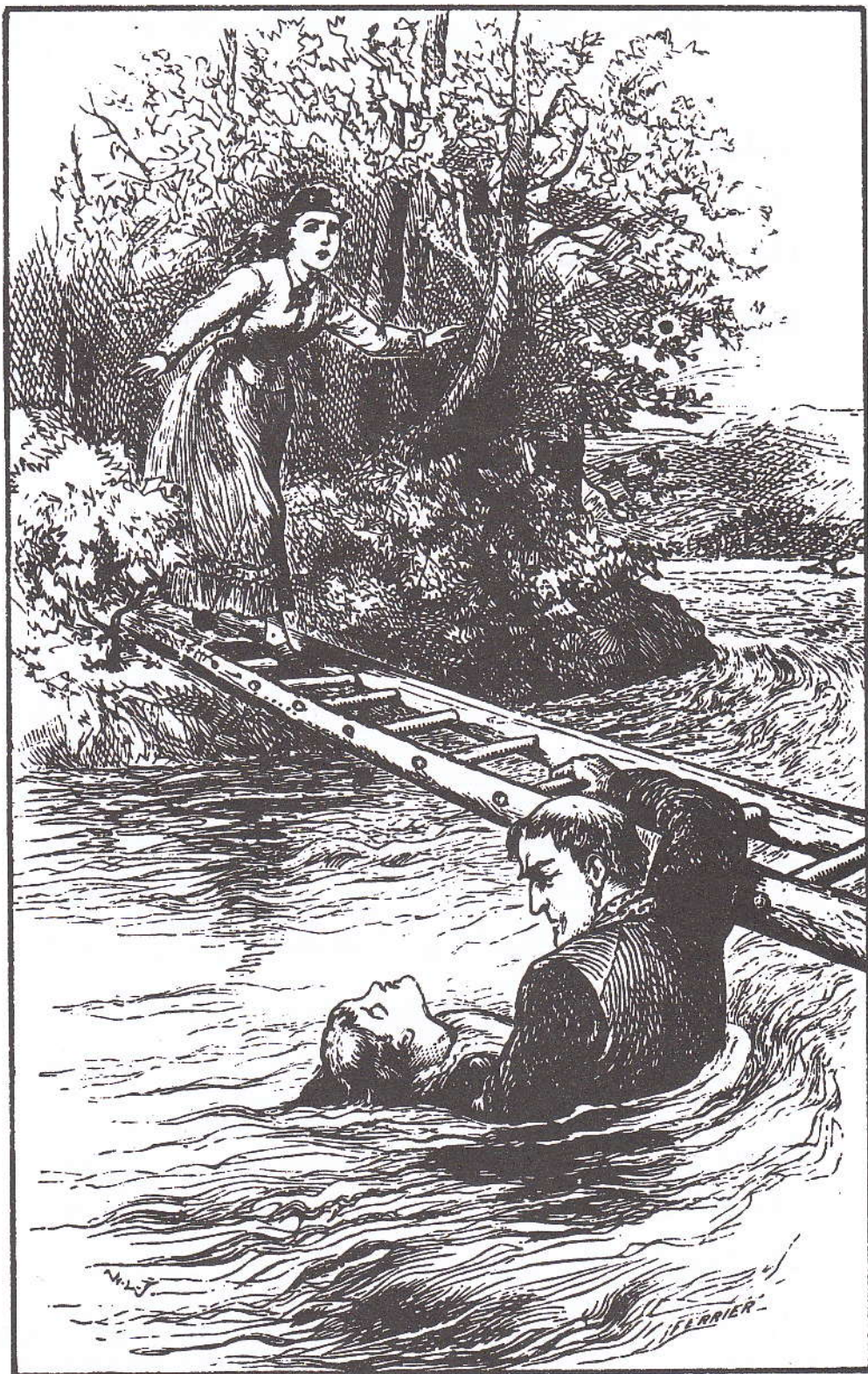
Sarah.

The grocer's boy.

The black cow.

5. Tell a story about the picture on the next page, using adverbs. How many verbs and adverbs have you just used?

Teacher's note: You may record the story.



PART IV

LESSON 1

When we speak of persons and things, we do not always use their names.

When we speak to people, we very seldom do so.

And when we speak of our own selves, we never do so.

The reason we have a choice is that there is a class of words for no other purpose but to be used instead, so that we may not have to say names again and again.

These words are called *pronouns* from two Latin words meaning *for-names*.

To be learned.

PRONOUNS ARE USED FOR NOUNS, THAT WE MAY NOT HAVE TO SAY NAMES AGAIN AND AGAIN.

EXERCISE 1

1. Make two sentences with each of the following words. In the first sentence use the word given. In the second, use its pronoun, such as:

Table—Please set the table.

Put the dishes on *it*.

Here the word used in place of table is the pronoun—*it*.

chair, kitten, daffodils, butterflies, Sally, paintbrush, panda, King, Michael, watermelons.



2. Look at the picture. Supply pronouns where needed:

Grandpa took a walk with Nigel in the woods.
_____ stepped over fallen logs, around thorn bushes,
and passed by wildflowers. Nigel asked Grandpa where
_____ were going. _____ told _____ that
there was something special _____ would like
_____ to see.

Nigel found it to be a nest of baby birds. Grandpa held
_____ in his arms so _____ could see better.
The mother bird stayed near the chicks but _____ did
not wish to be seen so _____ hid under a branch. The
chicks were hungry. _____ cried for food.

After a short while Grandpa and Nigel turned and
started to walk back through the woods. Nigel was very
happy to have seen God's little creatures. _____
thanked Grandpa for showing _____ to _____.

3. Make three sentences about each of the following,
using the right pronouns:

Jack, chickens, such as:

He is clever; they are very small.

4. Put six nouns in the place of each pronoun in the
given sentences:

They are very large.

(Ships, castles, oceans, mountains, are very large.)

She is gentle.

It is tiny.

5. Look in a picture book you enjoyed when you were
younger. How quickly can you find six pronouns in it?

LESSON 2

For one's own name one says *I*.

If there is but one person in a room where I am, that person must be myself. *I* am the first person. So *I* is a pronoun of the first person.

I means one single person and is of the singular number.

If I speak for myself and someone else, I say *we*.

We means more than one person, and is of the plural number.

I told Katie.

We told Katie.

Here "*I*" and "*we*" are subjects, and because they are subjects they are in the nominative case, like noun subjects.

To be learned.

THE PERSON SPEAKING IS THE FIRST PERSON.

EXERCISE 2

Put a pronoun of the first person (singular or plural) before each of the following:

_____ saw the eclipse of the moon.

_____ am happy.

_____ are going out.

_____ have two brothers.

_____ was reading a book.

2. Use a pronoun and a verb to say what you did at home yesterday.

3. Use a pronoun and a verb to say what you and your brother do on rainy days.

4. What pronouns and verbs will Katie use to tell you all the things she did when she went to her uncle's farm? Tell Katie's story yourself.

5. Supply verbs to the pronouns *I* and *we*, for example:

I am writing; We are reading.

6. Put the right pronouns in the sentence below.

David said: "David is going out to meet David's sister."

7. The picture on the next page shows the children looking forward to Christmas. Tell a story about the picture. In your story make a sentence with each of these verbs:

admire, wish, find, saw, look, using a pronoun of the first person.



LESSON 3

Mary told *I*.

Mary told *we*.

This is not right, for we want objects after the verb, and *I* and *we* can only be used as subjects.

The object pronouns are *me* and *us*.

Mary told *me*.

Mary told *us*.

Because *me* and *us* are objects, they are in the objective case.

"*I*'s book," "*we*'s book" we cannot say, because there are proper owning pronouns.

The possessing pronouns for the persons who speak are *my* and *our*.

My book.

Our house.

My and *our* are in the possessive case.

To be learned.

THE PRONOUNS OF THE FIRST PERSON ARE:

"*I*" AND "*WE*," SUBJECTS.

"*ME*" AND "*US*," OBJECTS.

"*MY*" AND "*OUR*," POSSESSING PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 3

1. Supply pronouns in the objective case to each of the following:

Mary saw _____.

She came to see _____.

2. Supply the right possessing pronouns to the names of things in the house, telling whether they belong to you or to someone else.

3. Supply the proper pronouns in:

You had _____ cap.

Tom met Henry and said to _____
are going home.

4. In the picture we see the Saint Bernard has managed to drag the boy to a door. Tell a story about the picture putting yourself in as one of the characters. You will be putting the story in first person.

5. Make some sentences about your lessons, using the first person pronouns "I," "me," "my," such as:

My sister asked me what I am studying.

6. Make sentences about your favorite indoor or outdoor games using "we," "us," "our."

7. Here is a challenge: *Black Beauty* is the title of a book written in "first person." It is the name of a horse who tells his story. Find a book in your home library that is written in "first person." You may have *Black Beauty* in your home library or another "I" or "we" book like *Robinson Crusoe* or *Swiss Family Robinson*.



LESSON 4

If I speak to someone, there must be two persons, the *first* person, I (the one who speaks), and the *second* person (the one to whom I speak).

In speaking to people we say *you*, whether we speak to one person or to several.

We may say:

You told Henry,

where *You* is the subject—nominative case, or,

Henry told *you*,

where *you* is the object—objective case.

You only alters a little when it owns. We do not say *You* book, but *Your* book.

Your is the possessive case for pronouns in the second person.

It used to be the custom to say *thou* for the subject, and *thee* for the object, and *thy* for the possessing pronoun, when speaking to one person, and we still find these words used in poetry.

See *thee*, when *thou* eat'st *thy* fill.

Here *thee* is the object after the verb *see*,

thou the subject of the verb *eat'st*, and

thy is possessive, owning *fill*.

To be learned.

THE PERSON SPOKEN TO IS THE SECOND PERSON.

"YOU" AND "YOUR" ARE PRONOUNS OF THE SECOND PERSON.

"THOU," "THEE," AND "THY" (FROM EARLIER TIMES) ARE SOMETIMES USED.

EXERCISE 4

1. Supply pronouns of the second person to each of the following verbs:

sing, laugh, play, cook, carve, dig.

2. Supply possessive pronouns with regard to things in the house that belong to different people, such as:

your rabbit, your bicycle, your book.

3. Find in a page of a reading book some pronouns in the second person. For examples of the earlier form look for second person pronouns in the King James Version of the Bible or in earlier editions of *Pilgrim's Progress* or works by William Shakespeare. We sing Christmas carols, such as "O Little Town of Bethlehem," that still have pronouns and verbs used as they were in the past.

4. Find in a poem some pronouns belonging to the second person.

Use the index of a poetry anthology to look up poems by John Greenleaf Whittier (such as "The Barefoot Boy") or Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (such as "Hiawatha's Childhood"). You will find that sometimes pronouns of the earlier form are used. If you keep your eyes open you will probably come across other poems, traditional hymns, or psalms that use that same form from the past.

5. How would you tell the baby that all his toys belong to him?

These are _____ blocks; this is _____ ball.

6. Give six sentences with the pronoun of the second person in the objective case, such as:

I told _____ to write a letter.

I gave _____ a dish of ice-cream.

7. Look at the picture of the class. Talk about the picture. If you were the teacher, what would you be telling or asking the children? Were the pronouns you used singular or plural? In the picture do you see a verb or pronoun from earlier times? What could we write instead?

8. Point out all the pronouns in the second person in the page of a book, and say whether they are singular or plural.

Teacher's note: You may want to record your child's talk.



LESSON 5

In speaking of persons, we say:

he for a man,

she for a woman,

it if we speak of a thing.

These words show the difference in what is called gender—that is, the difference between *he* and *she*.

Nouns show this difference too, either by different words, as:

boy	girl	peacock	peahen
cock	hen	nephew	niece
king	queen	gander	goose
hero	heroine		

or by a little change in the word for the *she* or female:

lion	lioness
prince	princess
actor	actress
emperor	empress
host	hostess

All words for females are in the *feminine* gender—*she*.

Words for males are in the *masculine* gender—*he*.

Things without life are, of course, neither male nor female.

So they are in the *neither* gender, only we use the Latin word for neither, and say *neuter*.

Book is in the *neuter* gender.

To be learned.

GENDER SHOWS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN "HE," "SHE," AND "IT."

"HE," MASCULINE.

"SHE," FEMININE.

"IT," NEUTER.

EXERCISE 5

**See Appendix B.*

1. Put the right pronouns for the following nouns:

boy, girl, lioness, tiger, man, table, chair, princess,
tree, bird.

2. Say six nouns which may stand for each of the following pronouns:

He, she, they, it.

He (George, the man, the knight, the prince,...).

3. Give the names of the different things and people you saw in your walk yesterday, and give the gender of each, as:

Yesterday I met Tony.

Tony—masculine.

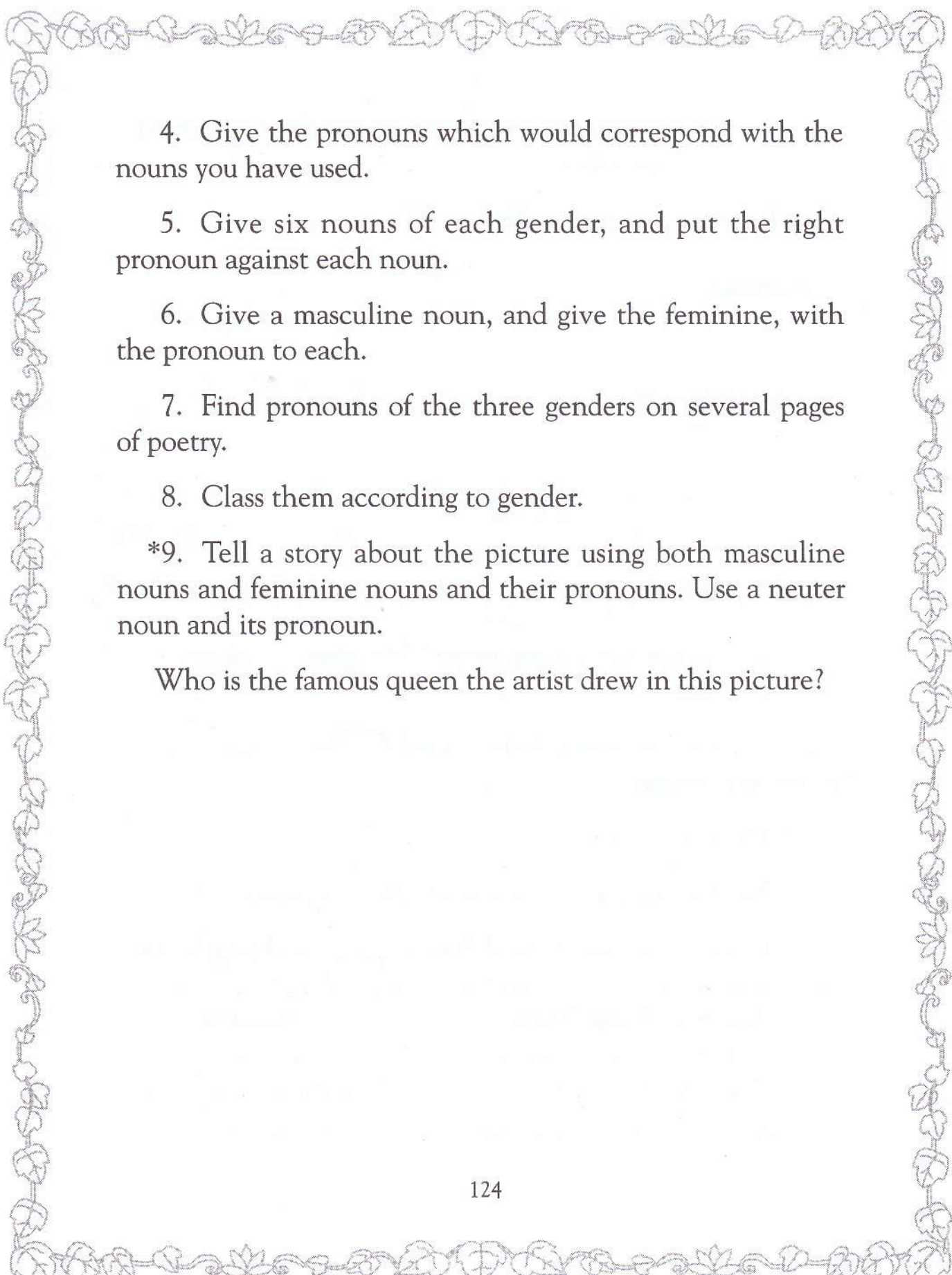
Yesterday I saw a pond.

pond—neuter.

Yesterday I visited Grandma.

Grandma—feminine.

Teacher's note: Numbers 3-6 may be recorded by the teacher or written by the child.



4. Give the pronouns which would correspond with the nouns you have used.

5. Give six nouns of each gender, and put the right pronoun against each noun.

6. Give a masculine noun, and give the feminine, with the pronoun to each.

7. Find pronouns of the three genders on several pages of poetry.

8. Class them according to gender.

*9. Tell a story about the picture using both masculine nouns and feminine nouns and their pronouns. Use a neuter noun and its pronoun.

Who is the famous queen the artist drew in this picture?

LESSON 6

If we speak about anyone, there must be three persons in our mind:

We who speak.

The person to whom we speak.

The person about whom we speak.

Therefore the person about whom we speak is the *third person*.

When we use the names of persons and things, we are generally speaking about them, so that nouns are nearly always in the third person.

When we speak of a man we use *he* for the subject:

He went with his brother.

We use *him* for the object:

His brother went with *him*.

And *his* for the possessing pronoun:

His brother.

In speaking of a woman, *she* is the subject:

She heard me.

Her is the object:

I heard *her*.

And *her* is the possessing pronoun:

Her dress.

For things, *it* is both subject and object:

It is here. I want *it* today.

The possessing pronoun is *its*:

The car lost *its* wheel.

To be learned.

THE PERSON WE SPEAK OF IS THE THIRD PERSON.

NOUNS ARE MOSTLY OF THE THIRD PERSON.

EXERCISE 6

1. Supply pronouns for the given nouns in the sentence:

I told Mary that John was in the garden, and Mary said, "Ask John to come in and have John's supper."

2. Give three pronouns that you would use instead of each of the following nouns:

beetle, spoon, boy, grocer, country, cat.

3. Find in a page of a book pronouns that are subjects.
4. Now make a list of pronouns that are objects.
5. Make a list of all the possessing pronouns in a page of a book.
6. Tell a story about the picture of the sisters in church on the next page. Use third person pronouns.
7. Supply three nouns for the following pronouns:
(He, She, It) is quiet.
8. Supply three pronouns for the following, and say for what they are meant:

Ryan saw (him, her, it).

Alison found _____ lost mitten. (Here use the possessing pronoun.)

Teacher's note: Numbers 4 and 5 may be recorded by the teacher or child. A few sentences may be written for number 6 or the child's story may be recorded.



LESSON 7

You remember that we say: the child *walks* and the children *walk*; this is because the verb must change to agree with the subject in number. In the same way, we say he *walks*, they *walk*.

Yet *I walks*, he *walks* is not right, though *I* and *he* are both singular.

The reason is that the verb must be like its subject in person as well as in number.

He is the third person, so it takes the same form of verb that the nouns take.

But *I* is first person, so we say: *I love*, not *loves*; thou *eatest*, not thou *eats*; and you *sing*, not you *sings*.

When we look at the verb by itself, we often cannot tell of what person or number it is: that is settled by the subject; whatever the subject is, the verb is also.

To be learned.

THE VERB AND THE SUBJECT ARE OF THE SAME PERSON.

EXERCISE 7

*See Appendix B.

*1. Supply the right pronouns to the following verbs (you may need pronouns of the earlier form):

write, goes, love, see, dance, fish, climbs, knowest, walks, speakest.

Here is a challenge for those who enjoy Shakespeare:

hast, dost, art.

2. Supply verbs to the following pronouns:

I, we, they, it, she, you, thou, he.

3. From a page in a book point out verbs. Say of what persons they are and why.

4. Make six sentences in which the verb agrees with its subject to each of the following pronouns: I, we, he.

5. In a page of a book point out verbs and their subjects.

6. Change the following pronouns into a different person, and see that the verb agrees with its subject, as:

I walk very fast. (Henry walks very fast. Thou walkest very fast. You walk very fast.)

7. Tell a story about the picture using pronouns.



LESSON 8

If we speak of more than one person, we use *they* for the subject, whether *they* are men, women, or things:

They came here.

Them for the object:

Give me six of *them*.

And *their* for the possessing pronoun:

Their house.

When the persons we speak of are both he and she, as:

Our *cousins* have come; there are five of *them*, three boys and two girls.

We say that such words as "cousins" and "them" are common as to gender, which means that they stand for both "he" and "she."

With most nouns the same word can be used for both he and she, and words like poet, author, doctor, librarian, helper, pharmacist, swimmer, dancer, teacher, refer to either he or she, just as do parent, child, friend, neighbor, cousin. They are called common nouns.

To be learned.

THE PLURAL PRONOUNS OF THE THIRD PERSON ARE "THEY,"

"THEM," AND "THEIR" AND STAND FOR ANY GENDER.

WHEN WORDS STAND FOR BOTH "HE" AND "SHE," THEY ARE COMMON NOUNS.

EXERCISE 8

**See Appendix B.*

1. Supply third person pronouns in place of the nouns in such sentences as:

The girls are in the garden.

I see the boys.

The child's crayons are scattered.

I brought the tools.

2. Supply three nouns in place of each of the following pronouns:

Their shoes are wet.

Tell them.

They are courageous.

In each case give as many different sorts of nouns as possible.

*3. Look at the picture of the children and the kite on the next page. Change the following sentences into the plural, and use pronouns.



The sister helps.

The boy is clever.

The child hopes to fly the kite.

His hands have glue on them.

He is patient.

Watch him.

(You have changed the verbs too haven't you?)

4. My *grandparents* have come. Make other sentences with common nouns.
5. Imagine a park nearby and give six common nouns (persons and things).
6. Point out the nouns in the third person in a page of a book.
7. Make three sentences about: the dandelions in the yard; the horses in the field.
8. Look on the next page at the picture of the boys on the donkey. Tell a story about the picture using third person pronouns.



LESSON 9

The pronouns we have had are called *personal*, because they are used instead of the names of persons.

There is another class of pronouns, not quite so useful, because the nouns they stand for must always go before them.

The boy who hurt his sister was very sorry.

Who is the pronoun, and it stands for "boy," and as you see, goes just before it.

For this reason the nouns that go before these pronouns are called their *antecedents*, which is the Latin way of saying their *go-befores*.

Boy and *who* are two words for the same person, so they must be alike in most ways.

Boy is a he—masculine.

Who must be the same.

Boy means one—singular.

Who is the same.

Boy, we speak of, the third person.

Who is the third person also.

These pronouns are like family or relatives to their

antecedents, and therefore are called *relative pronouns*. They are like their antecedents in gender, number, and person because they are just other words for the same person or thing.

Relative pronouns would be always in the same case.

To be learned.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS ARE LIKE THEIR ANTECEDENTS IN NUMBER, GENDER, AND PERSON.

EXERCISE 9

*See Appendix B.

1. Find the antecedents to the relative pronouns in sentences such as:

The boy who went by was whistling.

The girl who picked strawberries wore a hat.

The mail carrier who comes early always smiles.

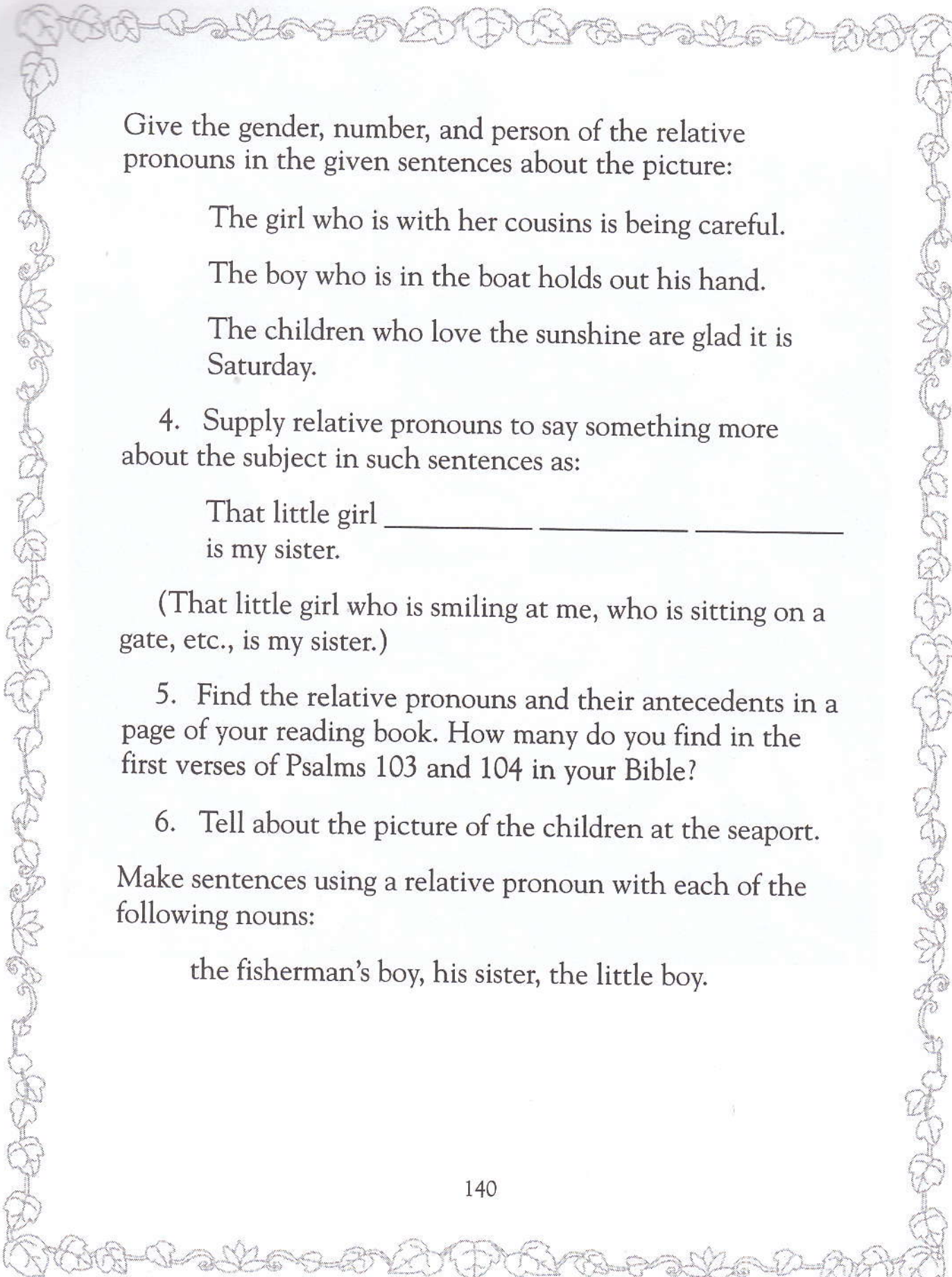
My friend who lives next door is my age.

2. Which relative pronoun must supply the blank?

The boys_____ are diligent will be rewarded.

- *3. Look at the picture of the children at the lake's edge.





Give the gender, number, and person of the relative pronouns in the given sentences about the picture:

The girl who is with her cousins is being careful.

The boy who is in the boat holds out his hand.

The children who love the sunshine are glad it is Saturday.

4. Supply relative pronouns to say something more about the subject in such sentences as:

That little girl _____
is my sister.

(That little girl who is smiling at me, who is sitting on a gate, etc., is my sister.)

5. Find the relative pronouns and their antecedents in a page of your reading book. How many do you find in the first verses of Psalms 103 and 104 in your Bible?

6. Tell about the picture of the children at the seaport.

Make sentences using a relative pronoun with each of the following nouns:

the fisherman's boy, his sister, the little boy.



LESSON 10

By now you have learned much about the sentence. You probably have noticed that a sentence is not just what is marked by the full stop of a period, but is the word or words (few or many) that belong to one verb.

Relative pronouns are rather tiresome for two reasons.

First, they very often bring a new sentence into the middle of one already begun.

"The boy who hurt his sister was very sorry," is two sentences.

The boy (subject)
was very sorry (predicate)
is one sentence, and
Who (subject)
hurt his sister (predicate)

is another sentence.

Who is always a subject, and so must always have a predicate for itself.

Who is always used for persons, and because it is a subject, it is in the nominative case.

To be learned.

"WHO" IS ALWAYS THE SUBJECT OF A SENTENCE.

EXERCISE 10

*See Appendix B.

1. Make four sentences such as:

The boy who is cutting the grass lives in the village.

The boy is cutting the grass. He lives in the village.

Point out the separate sentences, showing the subjects and predicates.

2. Look at the picture on the next page. Supply predicates with relative pronouns, in such sentences as:

The girl _____ is the doctor's daughter.

Give several predicates for each subject.

3. Give a sentence with a relative pronoun, and supply the antecedent and predicate, as:

_____ who is kind _____.

(The girl who is kind helps me.)

- *4. Join statements such as the following with a relative pronoun:

The boy is in the house. The boy saw me.

(The boy who is in the house saw me.)



Yolanda was given roller skates. She skates all afternoon.

The artists sit on the hill. They paint the scenery.

My grandmother bakes each Thursday. She brought us some pies.

Dad loves tomatoes. He plants a garden each spring.

Sophia is busy at the sewing machine. She is making a dress.

The librarians are always busy. They check out my books.

5. Pick out several pairs of sentences in a book and join them with a relative pronoun as you did in number 4.

Teacher's note: The joined sentences in numbers 4-5 may be written by the student.

LESSON 11

The next difficulty with relative pronouns is that they have a way of getting out of their proper places.

We know that the *object* should follow the verb. When a relative pronoun is an object, it not only goes before the verb, but even before the subject.

The boy *whom* you saw has a little sister (*whom* being the object of the verb *saw*).

Whom is used in speaking of persons. It is always an object, and therefore in the *objective* case.

The possessing relative pronoun is *whose*.

It has an antecedent like the others, and agrees with its antecedent in the same three ways.

The child, *whose* doll you saw, is crying.

Child is the antecedent to *whose*, and *whose* possesses *doll*.

To be learned.

"WHOM" IS ALWAYS AN OBJECT, THOUGH IT GOES BEFORE THE SUBJECT.

"WHOSE" IS THE POSSESSIVE RELATIVE, AND IT AGREES WITH THE NOUN THAT GOES BEFORE IT.



EXERCISE 11

*See Appendix B.

- *1. Look back at the picture on page 147 of the girl jumping rope. Break the following sentences into two parts.

Example: The man to whom I spoke was very old.

(I spoke to the man. The man was very old.)

The boy whose fly ball I caught is tall.

(I caught the boy's fly ball. The boy is tall.)

The girl whose jump rope I found is happy.

Her friends whom we see wait for a turn.

- *2. Find the antecedents of the relative pronouns in given sentences, such as:

The child whom we found lives in the white cottage.

My brother whose lame puppy I carried sits in his room.

The veterinarian whom you live near bandaged the puppy.

- *3. Give the person, number, and gender of the relative pronoun in given sentences, such as:

The little girl whose mother is ill goes to school regularly.

4. Look at the picture. Supply a sentence with a relative pronoun as object in the blank:

The little girls _____ were very sad.

5. Supply a sentence using a possessive relative pronoun in:

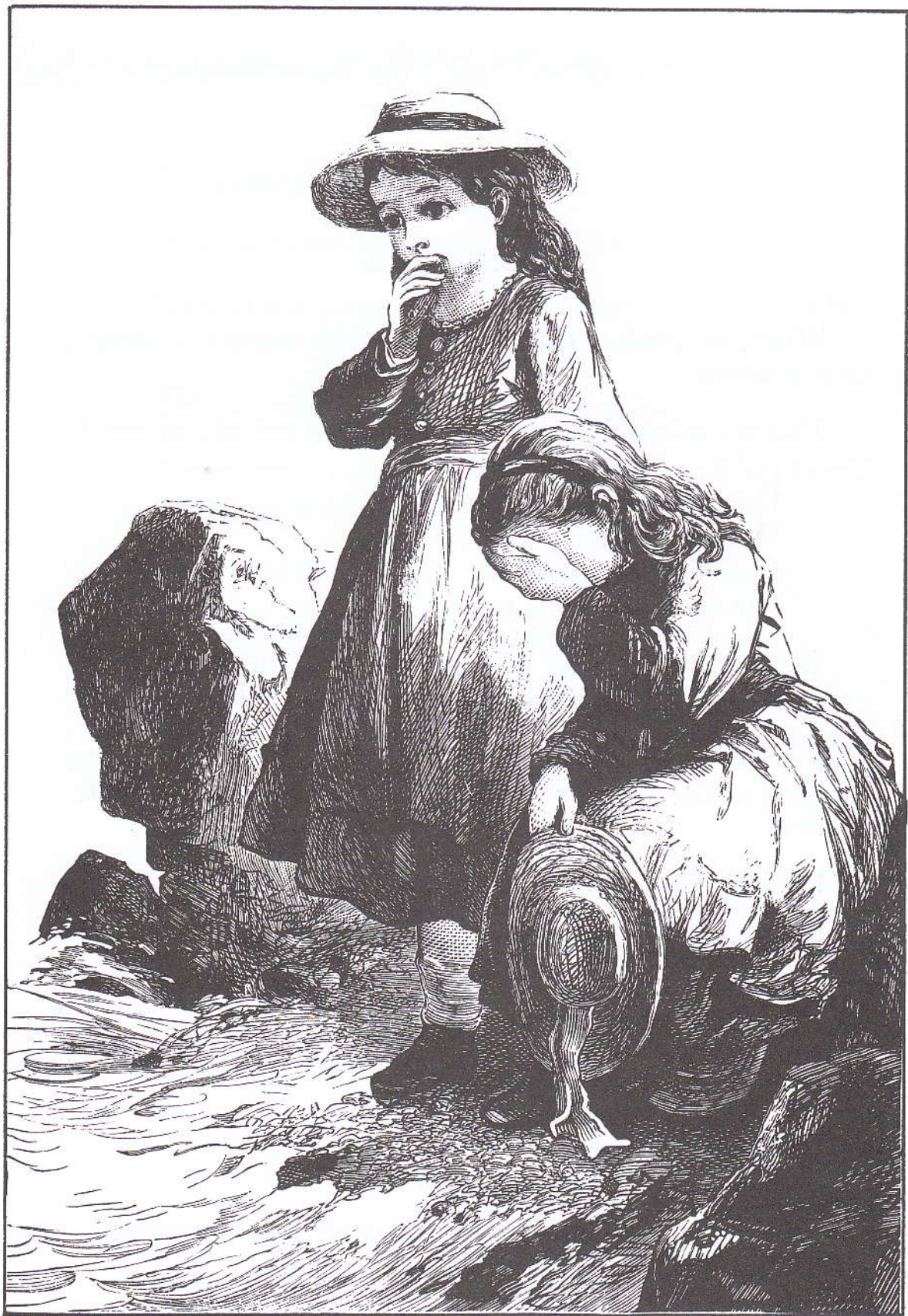
The farmer _____ is Mr. Brown.

6. Make sentences about:

the baker, Mary, my aunt, our grandfather,

using (1) an objective and (2) a possessing relative pronoun.

7. Find the antecedents of the relative pronouns used in Number 6, and give their person, gender, and number.



LESSON 12

When we speak of things, we use *which* instead of either *who* or *whom*.

That is a relative pronoun when we can put *who* or *which* instead of it.

The boy *that* fell down.

The boy *who* fell down.

The book *that* you read.

The book *which* you read.

We call these relative pronouns because they relate, or carry us back, to some noun.

What is a relative too, and a rather puzzling one. It means *the thing which*, so we call *thing* the antecedent, and *which* its relative.

He does not know *what* he is to do, means

He does not know *the thing which* he is to do.

To be learned.

"WHICH," "THAT," AND "WHAT" ARE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

EXERCISE 12

*See Appendix B.

1. Why is the relative pronoun *which* used in sentences, such as:

The plant which blossoms first is the most admired.

Have you seen the book which I bought yesterday?

*2. Look at the picture on the next page. Replace *that* by *who*, *whom*, *which* in the following sentences:

The boy that sailed his boat lost his balance.

The water that flows down river from the mountain is cold.

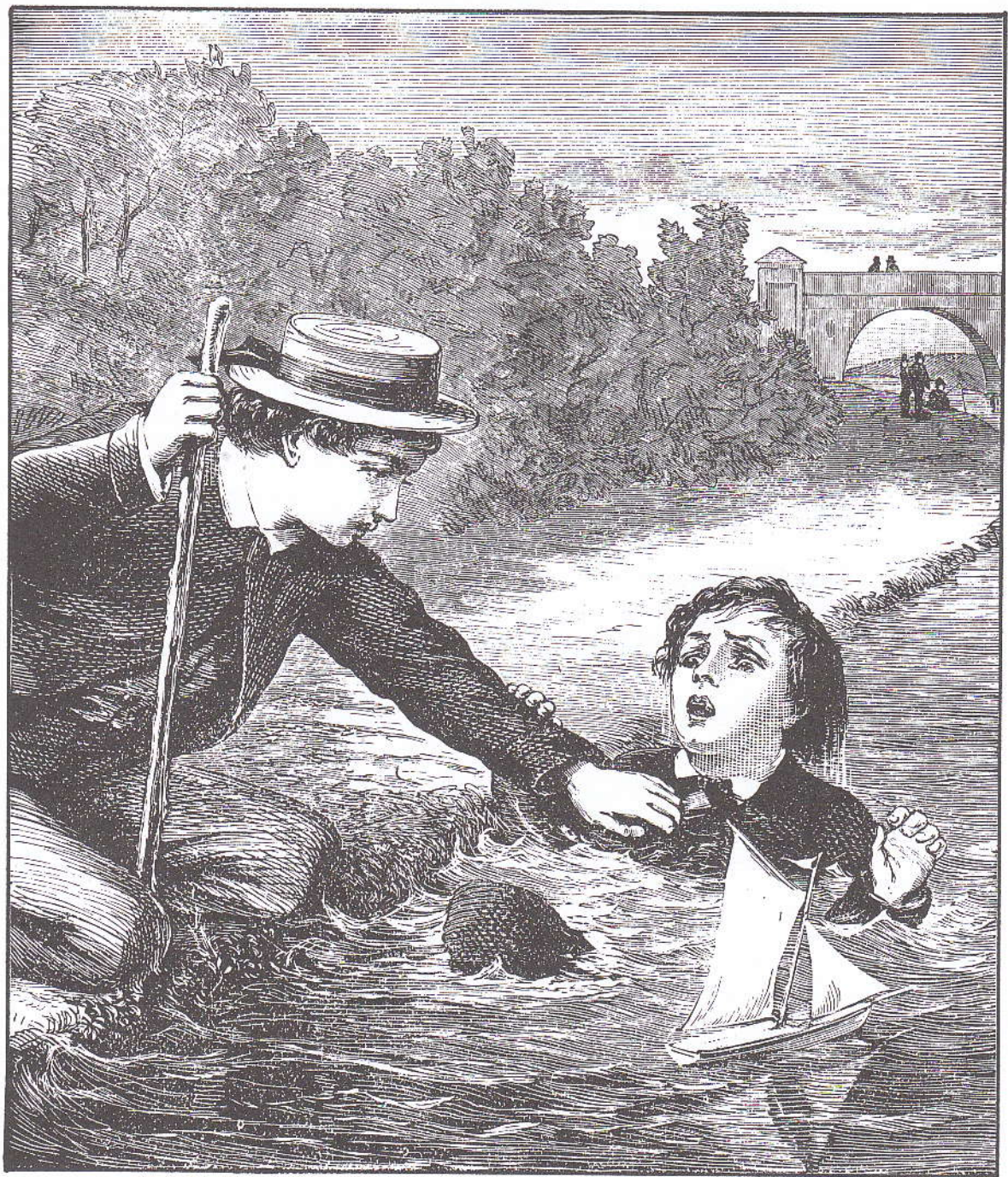
His friend that you met yesterday helped the boy.

The suit that was new was completely soaked.

3. Give the meaning of *what* in the following:

Do tell me what I am to say.

Did you see what I saw?



LESSON 13

You remember we found, in the lesson about adjectives, many which have no particular or definite meaning.

These have a double use: they are called adjectives when they belong to nouns, as we saw before; when they are used *instead* of nouns they are called *indefinite* pronouns.

We may say, Give me a *few* apples, where *few* is an adjective belonging to apples.

Or we may say, Give me a *few*, leaving out apples, so that *few* stands for apples as a pronoun would.

Of course *apples* is understood in the second sentence, though we do not say it.

So with:

Give me *another* pen.

Give me *another*.

Will you have *some* bread?

I have *some*.

Because these words have this double use, they are called indefinite pronouns.

To be learned.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS MAY STAND FOR NOUNS, AND SO MAY BE SUBJECTS OR OBJECTS IN A SENTENCE.

EXERCISE 13

*See Appendix B.

1. Give two different indefinite pronouns as subjects to replace the ones given:

(Another) is wanted.

(A few) were saved.

(Some) are ripe now.

2. Supply three different indefinite pronouns as objects to replace the ones given:

Have you any?

Give me some.

*3. The following passage belongs with the picture. Read it first for interest. Go back and read it again, slowly, looking for the words *some*, *any*, *few*, *many*, *most*, *several*, *last*, and *other*. Say whether they are used with a noun or instead of a noun in each case.

Each morning seemed to be more chilly than the *last*. This morning Carl was interrupted in his chores when he spilled straw by the hearth. He picked up *some*, but his thoughts distracted him. *Most* lay on the floor. Carl sat by the fire to warm himself. He straightened *several* strands. Then he braided a *few*. Now warmed, he knew he must return to his *other* chores. Tomorrow there would not be *many*, he thought to himself. The family was going to meet Dad at the train station. He hoped there would be no more snowfall during the night. It would make their journey difficult. For their *last* trip there wasn't *any*.

*4. Read the passage above and say whether each indefinite pronoun is a subject or an object. Only if it replaces a noun will it be a subject or object.

Teacher's note: some of these sentences are long and can be divided into phrases. With pencil put phrases in parentheses to make it easier for the child to determine subject or object.



LESSON 14

Henry called his sister.
He asked her to go out.
She said she could not.
She must do her lessons.

Here are four single sentences that would read much better if they were joined together.

Henry called his sister *and* asked her to go out, *but* she said she could not *because* she must do her lessons.

These words that join sentences together are called *conjunctions* (meaning *to join together*).

By the help of conjunctions often we may turn several sentences into one, and so save many words.

You remember that we turned several predicates into one, by the help of the conjunction *and*.

The same thing may happen with subjects.

We may say:

John played.
Ann played.
Kate played.
Henry played.
George played.

These five sentences may be turned into one:

John, Ann, Kate, Henry, *and* George played.

Name-words joined by *and* in this way are in the same case.

To be learned.

CONJUNCTIONS JOIN SENTENCES.

EXERCISE 14

1. Put the following sentences into one by the use of conjunctions, for example: *because*, *but*, *and*, etc.

The dog barked.

He heard his master's voice.

He was not chained.

He retired into his kennel.

2. Make sentences saying what you and your sisters (or friends) were doing this morning, joining all the name-words to make one subject.

3. Talk about the picture on the next page. How many conjunctions did you use in your talk?

4. Point out the conjunctions on a page of a reading book.



LESSON 15

There are a few words that have no true place in a sentence, but are just thrown in here and there, to show feeling.

They are called *interjections* (meaning *thrown in*).

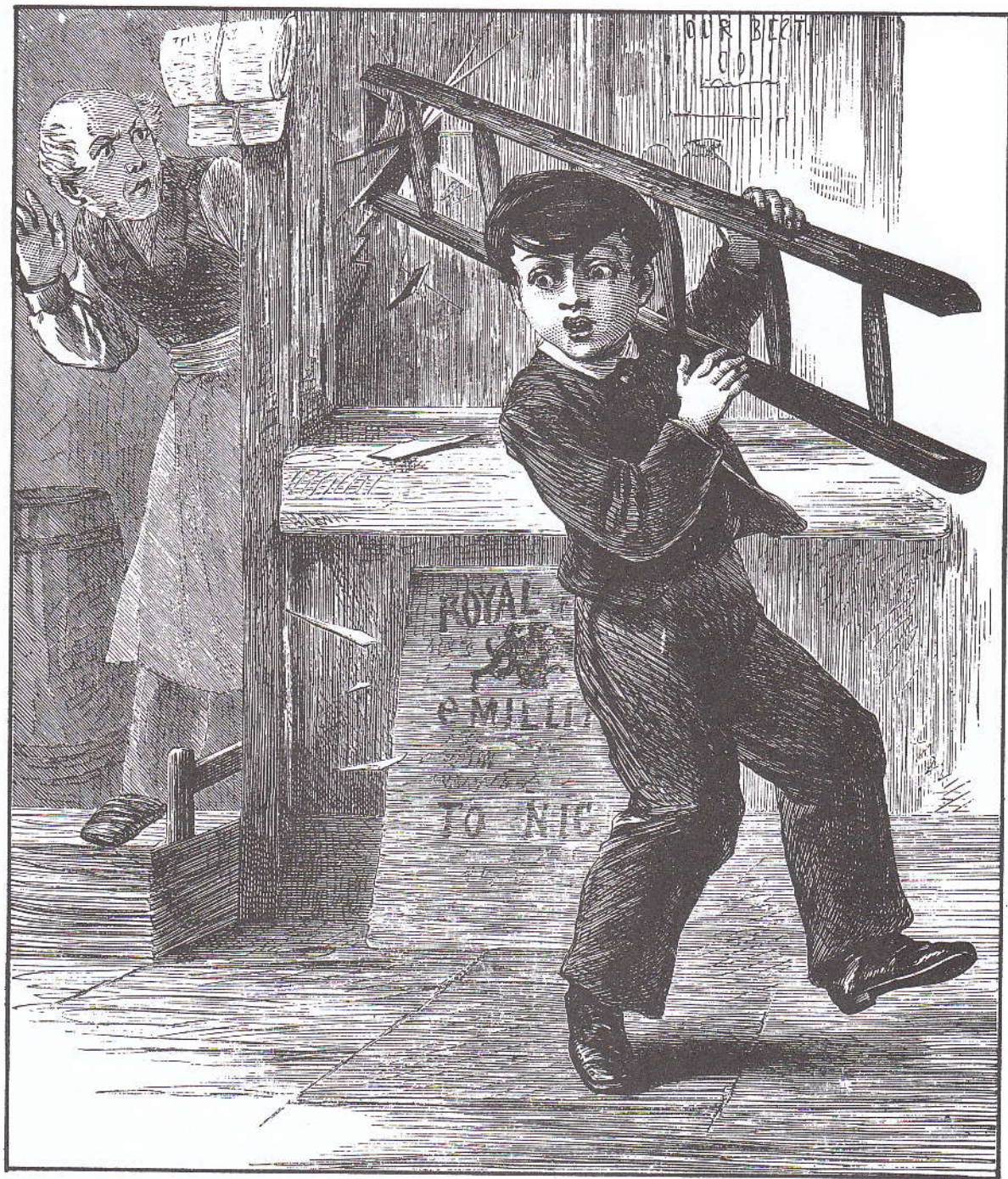
Oh, ah, alas, O, wow, etc., are *interjections*.

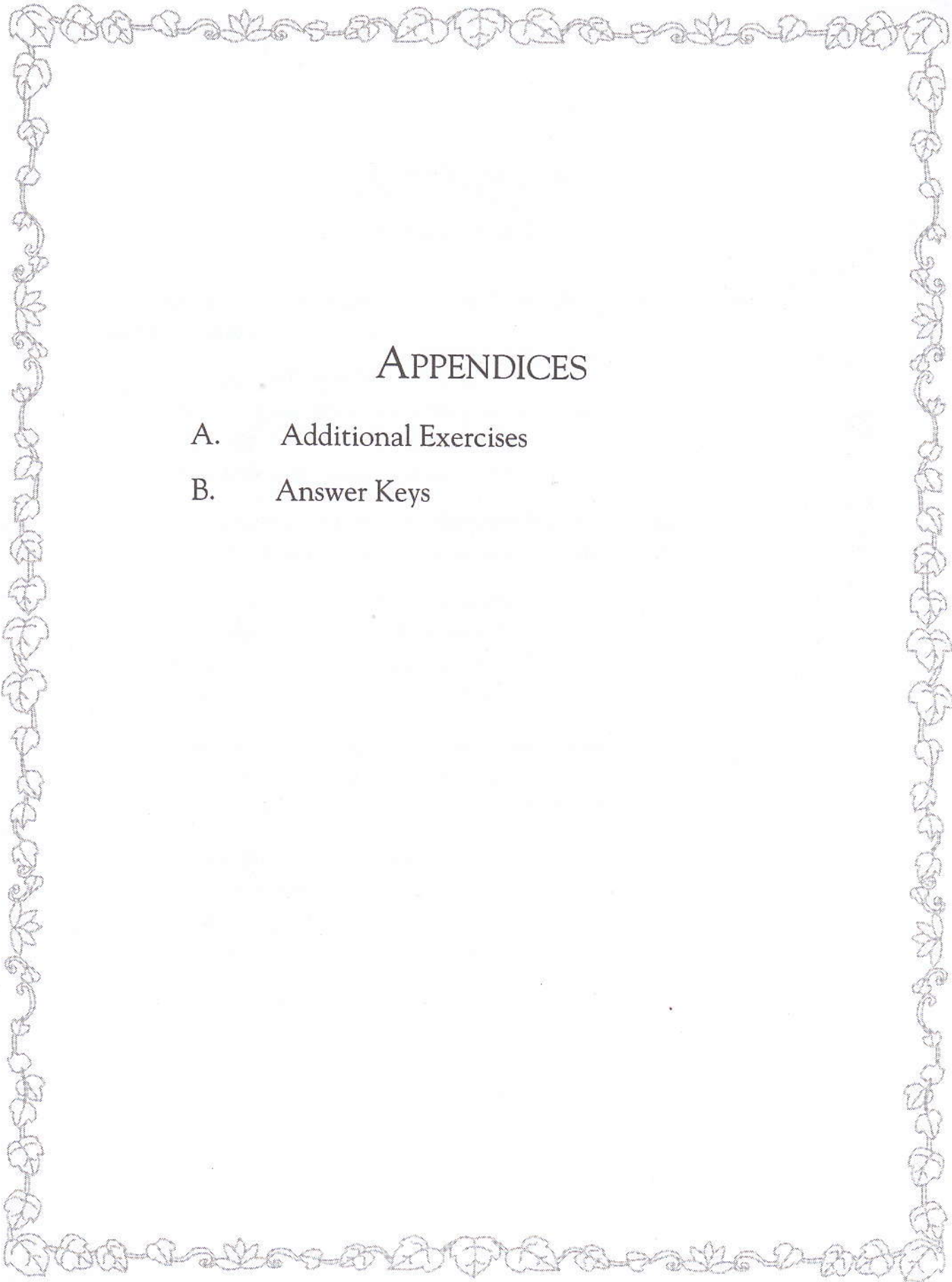
To be learned.

INTERJECTIONS ARE WORDS THROWN INTO A SENTENCE TO SHOW FEELING.

EXERCISE 15

1. Give interjections to begin the following sentences:
_____ how you frighten me!
_____ my bird is dead.
_____ how wise you must be!
2. Tell a story about the picture on the next page using interjections.
3. Look for interjections in a poetry book.



A decorative border of repeating floral and leaf motifs surrounds the central text.

APPENDICES

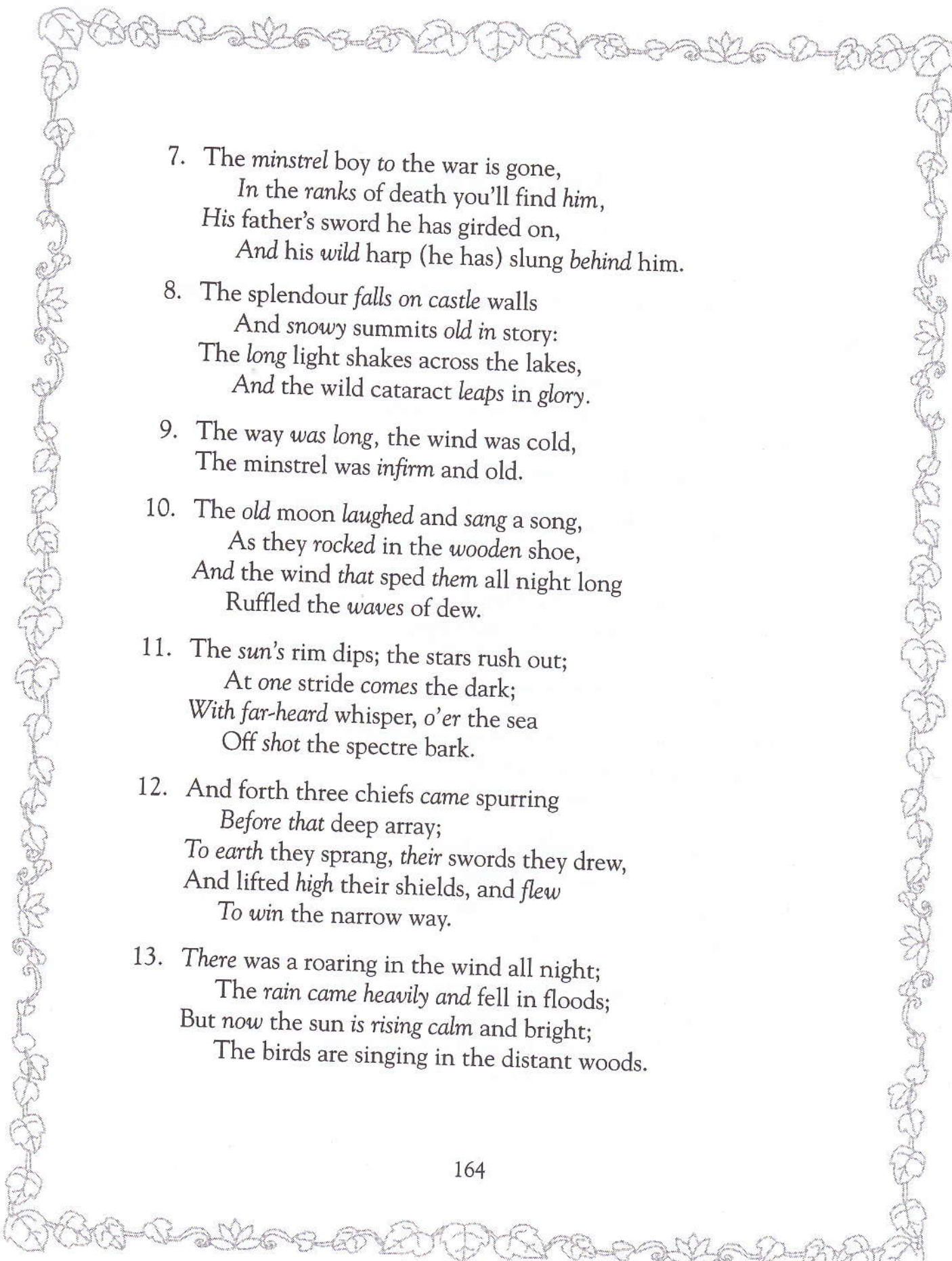
- A. Additional Exercises
- B. Answer Keys

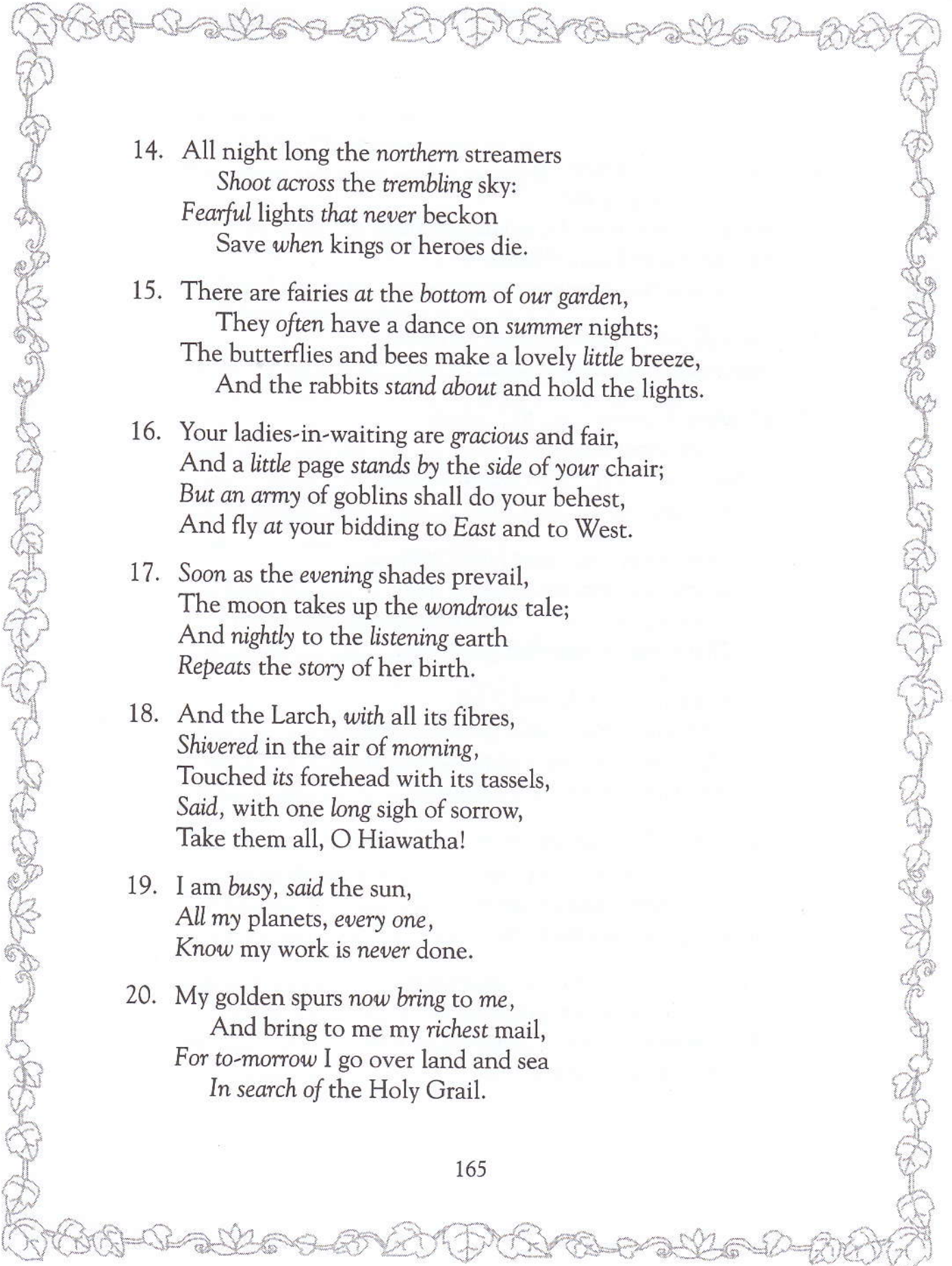
APPENDIX A

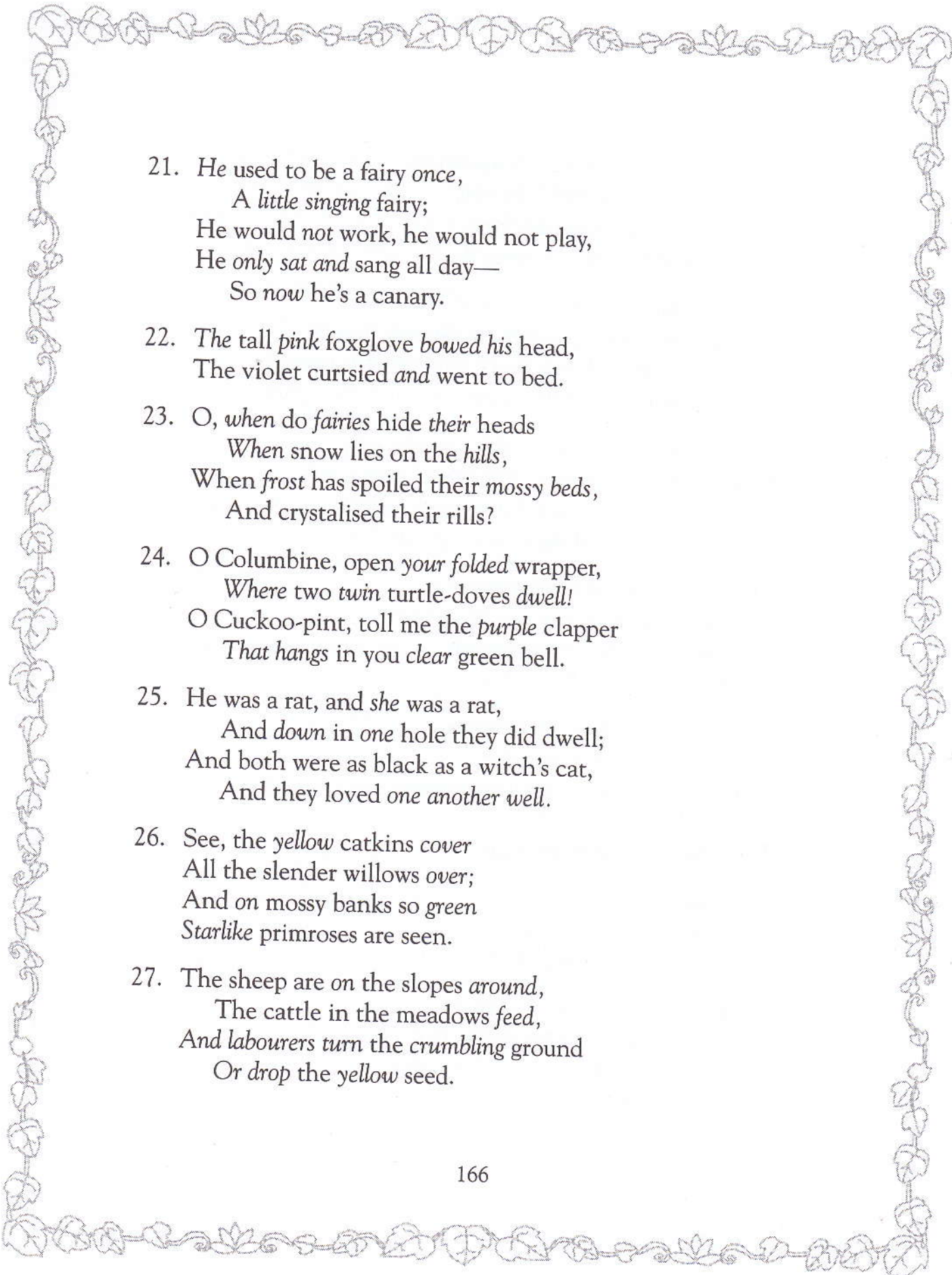
Additional Exercises

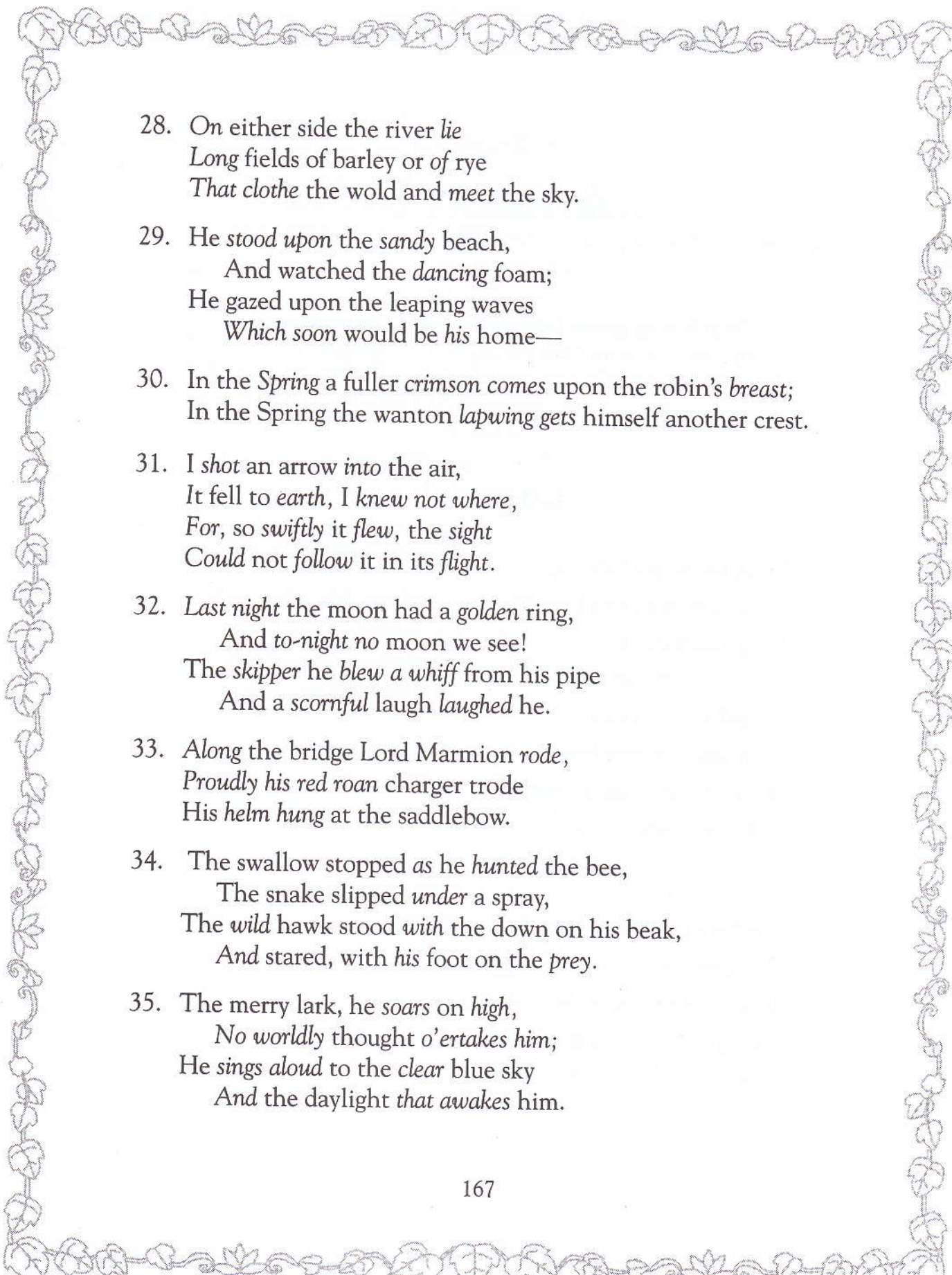
Pick out *subjects*, *predicates*, and *objects* and say all you can about the words in italics.

1. Joan can tell *by name her cows*,
And deck *her windows* with *green boughs*;
She can wreaths and tutties make,
And trim *with plums* a *bridal cake*.
2. The *dew* was falling *fast*, the stars *began* to blink;
I heard a voice; *it said*, "*Drink, pretty creature, drink!*"
3. Now *my brothers* call *from the bay*,
Now the *great winds* shoreward blow,
Now the salt tides *seaward flow*;
Now the wild *white* horses play.
4. The owl *was awake* in the white moonshine;
I saw her at rest *in her downy nest*,
And *she* stared *at me with* her broad, bright eye.
5. The storm came on *before its time*;
She *wandered up* and down;
And *many a hill* did Lucy climb,
But never reached the town.
6. Old Mother Hubbard *went to the cupboard*
To get the poor dog a bone,
But *when she got there* the cupboard *was bare*,
And so the poor dog had none.

- 
7. The minstrel boy to the war is gone,
In the ranks of death you'll find him,
His father's sword he has girded on,
And his wild harp (he has) slung behind him.
 8. The splendour falls on castle walls
And snowy summits old in story:
The long light shakes across the lakes,
And the wild cataract leaps in glory.
 9. The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old.
 10. The old moon laughed and sang a song,
As they rocked in the wooden shoe,
And the wind that sped them all night long
Ruffled the waves of dew.
 11. The sun's rim dips; the stars rush out;
At one stride comes the dark;
With far-heard whisper, o'er the sea
Off shot the spectre bark.
 12. And forth three chiefs came spurring
Before that deep array;
To earth they sprang, their swords they drew,
And lifted high their shields, and flew
To win the narrow way.
 13. There was a roaring in the wind all night;
The rain came heavily and fell in floods;
But now the sun is rising calm and bright;
The birds are singing in the distant woods.

- 
14. All night long the *northern* streamers
Shoot across the trembling sky:
Fearful lights that never beckon
Save when kings or heroes die.
15. There are fairies at the *bottom* of our garden,
They often have a dance on *summer* nights;
The butterflies and bees make a lovely *little* breeze,
And the rabbits *stand about* and hold the lights.
16. Your ladies-in-waiting are *gracious* and fair,
And a *little* page stands by the side of your chair;
But an army of goblins shall do your behest,
And fly at your bidding to *East* and to *West*.
17. Soon as the *evening* shades prevail,
The moon takes up the *wondrous* tale;
And *nightly* to the listening earth
Repeats the story of her birth.
18. And the Larch, with all its fibres,
Shivered in the air of *morning*,
Touched its forehead with its tassels,
Said, with one long sigh of sorrow,
Take them all, O Hiawatha!
19. I am *busy*, said the sun,
All my planets, every one,
Know my work is never done.
20. My golden spurs now bring to me,
And bring to me my *richest* mail,
For to-morrow I go over land and sea
In search of the Holy Grail.

- 
21. He used to be a fairy once,
A little singing fairy;
He would not work, he would not play,
He only sat and sang all day—
So now he's a canary.
22. The tall pink foxglove bowed his head,
The violet curtsied and went to bed.
23. O, when do fairies hide their heads
When snow lies on the hills,
When frost has spoiled their mossy beds,
And crystalised their rills?
24. O Columbine, open your folded wrapper,
Where two twin turtle-doves dwell!
O Cuckoo-pint, toll me the purple clapper
That hangs in you clear green bell.
25. He was a rat, and she was a rat,
And down in one hole they did dwell;
And both were as black as a witch's cat,
And they loved one another well.
26. See, the yellow catkins cover
All the slender willows over;
And on mossy banks so green
Starlike primroses are seen.
27. The sheep are on the slopes around,
The cattle in the meadows feed,
And labourers turn the crumbling ground
Or drop the yellow seed.

- 
28. On either side the river lie
Long fields of barley or of rye
That clothe the wold and meet the sky.
29. He stood upon the sandy beach,
And watched the dancing foam;
He gazed upon the leaping waves
Which soon would be his home—
30. In the Spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast;
In the Spring the wanton lapwing gets himself another crest.
31. I shot an arrow into the air,
It fell to earth, I knew not where,
For, so swiftly it flew, the sight
Could not follow it in its flight.
32. Last night the moon had a golden ring,
And to-night no moon we see!
The skipper he blew a whiff from his pipe
And a scornful laugh laughed he.
33. Along the bridge Lord Marmion rode,
Proudly his red roan charger trode
His helm hung at the saddlebow.
34. The swallow stopped as he hunted the bee,
The snake slipped under a spray,
The wild hawk stood with the down on his beak,
And stared, with his foot on the prey.
35. The merry lark, he soars on high,
No worldly thought o'ertakes him;
He sings aloud to the clear blue sky
And the daylight that awakes him.

APPENDIX B

Answer Keys

The following answer keys correspond to the numbers in the main text which are marked with an asterisk(*).

PART I

EXERCISE 2

- *1. Mary (is or was) sleepy.
Boys (are or can be) rough.
Girls (are) quiet.
He (was) first yesterday.
I (am) a little boy.
Tom and George (are) swinging before dinner.
We (will be) busy tomorrow.
Fido (is) a good dog.

- *7. He (went) away. (doing)
You (are) my cousin. (being)
It (is) time to go to bed. (being)
George (goes) to church. (doing)
She (took) her book. (doing)

EXERCISE 4

- *5. Each of these words can be used as a pronoun or as an adjective. The important thing to be learned is that it belongs to the noun.

some	one	this	which
all	that	other	what
the	those	a	an

Example: These cherries.

EXERCISE 5

- *4. Mother baked a cake.
Yolanda mixed the frosting.
Nigel licked the spoon.
Sophia lit the candles.
We sang "Happy Birthday."
Dad blew out the candles.

EXERCISE 8

- | | | |
|----|--------|----------|
| *2 | fox | foxes |
| | inch | inches |
| | wish | wishes |
| | bush | bushes |
| | stitch | stitches |
| | dish | dishes |
| | tax | taxes |
| | cross | crosses |
| | lunch | lunches |

*3. wolf	wolves
leaf	leaves
wife	wives
half	halves
self	selves
thief	thieves
elf	elves
knife	knives

*4. foot	feet
goose	geese
tooth	teeth
mouse	mice
ox	oxen
child	children
die	dice
woman	women
penny	pennies
brother	brothers

- *5. Herd animals fit this category:
 deer
 bison
 elk, etc.

- *6. Nouns ending in y after a consonant form the plural by changing y to i and adding es to the singular:
- | | |
|-------|---------|
| candy | candies |
| baby | babies |
| pony | ponies |
| lady | ladies |
| daisy | daisies |
| sky | skies |

Note: Nouns ending in y after a vowel add s.

boy	boys
turkey	turkeys
day	days
valley	valleys

EXERCISE 9

- *3. singular The girl is excited.
plural The soldiers are marching.
plural Guns are held by the soldiers.
plural The people (or girls) are waving.
singular A handkerchief is being waved.
singular The child (or baby) is sitting on the window sill.

EXERCISE 10

- *3. The student may use the names of family or friends.
- | | | |
|-----------------------|-------|--|
| singular | _____ | rakes the leaves. |
| plural | _____ | help. |
| singular | _____ | makes a big pile for us. |
| plural | _____ | jump into it. |
| plural | _____ | scatter. |
| plural | _____ | rake them back again. |
| singular
or plural | _____ | like autumn. ("I" or "we" but not
"he" or "she.") |

PART II

EXERCISE 2

*1. -ed

walk
laugh
talk
wait
wish
show

walked
laughed
talked
waited
wished
showed

-d

dance
hope
love
promise
smile
live

danced
hoped
loved
promised
smiled
lived

The past tense is usually formed by adding *ed* or *d* to the present tense. This is the regular way.

*3. say

hit
call
poke
make

said
hit (doesn't change)
called
poked
made

In many of the oldest verbs, of the English language, the change appears in the middle of the word, whether anything is added or not. Here are some examples but there are many others.

fall	fell	do	did
see	saw	may	might
stand	stood	shall	should
say	said	will	would
sit	sat	can	could
lead	led	think	thought
catch	caught	buy	bought

EXERCISE 3

- *1. Three sisters took a walk with Mother.
 Mother held, carried the youngest sister.
 One swan straightened, stretched, raised its neck.
 Lucy gave it some bread.
 A lady held, had a parasol.
 Carol took off her hat.

- *2. An intransitive verb is one that does not require an object to complete its meaning. Here are some possibilities your student may supply:

Peter _____ (writes, walks, whistles, etc).
 The baby _____ (sleeps, cries, laughs, kicks, crawls).
 A bird _____ (sings, flies, pecks).
 The farmer _____ (plants, plows, harvests).
 Elizabeth _____ (talks, plays, reads, etc).

Intransitive verbs seem to tell what the subject does in general. What do children do? They play.

EXERCISE 6

*5. Possible answers:

The boy's dog begs for food.

The cat's fur is white.

The girl's hair is braided.

The boy's clothes are ripped.

The boy's bowl is full.

The dog's fur is scruffy.

EXERCISE 8

*1. (nominative) (nominative)
Mrs. Clarkson is my teacher.

(nominative) (nominative)
A rose is a fragrant flower.

(nominative) (nominative)
Bridgett is a neighbor.

Mrs. Clarkson, teacher, rose, flower, Bridgett, and neighbor are all in the nominative case because different names for the same thing, whether they are before or after the being verb, are always the same case.

(nominative) (nominative) (verb)
William the King has been crowned.

(nominative) (nominative) (objective)
George the gardener has broken his leg.

(nominative) (nominative) (objective)
Robin the pony has a long mane.

Why? *William*, *King*, *George*, *gardener*, *Robin*, and *pony* are each in the nominative case because different names for the same thing in a sentence are in the same case. *Leg* and *mane* are in the objective case because *leg* is *what* the gardener broke, and *mane* is *what* the pony has.

EXERCISE 10

- *3. The house was built *near the river*.
(Belongs to the predicate—was built.)
Gather your flowers *with long stalks*.
(Belongs to the object—flower.)
The bird *on the roof* is a starling.
(Belongs to the subject—bird.)
Near the mill runs the stream.
(Belongs to the predicate—runs.)

PART III

EXERCISE 4

- *4. Possible answers:
It is fine, so let us go and gather flowers.
If it be fine we will go and gather flowers.
The wind blows the boats out of their course.
If the wind blow the boats might (sail, go, drift) out of their course.
The children came when it was late.
I wish the children would come because it is late.
If it be late the children should come.

EXERCISE 6

- *1. Henry walks slowly.
The owl flew into the barn.
Yesterday the dog bit the mail carrier.
Mary ran outside quickly.

EXERCISE 7

*3. Possible answers:

The boys climbed *carefully, excitedly, cautiously*, etc.

They can both see *clearly, wonderfully, perfectly*, etc.

The birds flutter *gently, gracefully, excitedly*, etc.

PART IV

EXERCISE 5

*9. Queen Victoria shares with the African prince what it is that she says has made England a great nation, the Holy Bible.

EXERCISE 7

*1. From Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, Juliet speaks:
"How art thou out of breath, when thou hast breath
To say to me that thou art out of breath" (act 3, scene 5).

thou (art, hast, dost).

you (are, have, do).

EXERCISE 8

*3. The sister helps.	They help.
The boy is clever.	They are clever.
The child hopes to fly the kite.	They hope to fly the kite.
His hands have glue on them.	Their hands have glue on them.
He is patient.	They are patient.
Watch him.	Watch them.

EXERCISE 9

- *3. The girl who is with her cousins is being careful.
 who—feminine, singular, third person
 who refers to girl
The boy who is in the boat holds out his hand.
 who—masculine, singular, third person
 who refers to boy
The children who love the sunshine are glad it is Saturday.
 who—neuter, plural, third person
 who refers to children

EXERCISE 10

- *4. Yolanda who was given roller skates, skates all afternoon.
The artists who sit on the hill paint the scenery.
My grandmother who bakes each Thursday brought us some pies.
Dad who loves tomatoes plants a garden each spring.
Sophia who is busy at the sewing machine is making a dress.
The librarians who are always busy check out our books.

EXERCISE 11

- *1. The girl whose jump rope I found is happy.
I found the girl's jump rope. The girl is happy.
Her friends whom we see wait for a turn.
We see her friends. Her friends wait for a turn.
- *2. The child whom we found lives in the white cottage.
 child—antecedent of whom (relative pronoun)
My brother whose lame puppy I carried sits in his room.
 brother—antecedent of whose (relative pronoun)
The veterinarian whom you live near bandaged the puppy.
 veterinarian—antecedent of whom (relative pronoun)

- *3. The little girl whose mother is ill goes to school regularly.
whose—third person, singular, feminine (whose refers to girl)

Can your child create his own sentences with antecedents and their relative pronouns?

Can he give the person, number, and gender of the relative pronouns in his sentences?

EXERCISE 12

- *2. The boy *who* sailed his boat lost his balance.
The water *which* flows down river from the mountain is cold.
His friend *whom* you met yesterday helped the boy.
The suit *which* was new was completely soaked.

EXERCISE 13

- *3. Each morning seemed to be more chilly than the *last* (replaces noun-subject). This morning Carl was interrupted in his chores, when he spilled straw by the hearth. He picked up *some* (replaces noun-subject), but his thoughts distracted him. *Most* (replaces noun-subject) lay on the floor. Carl sat by the fire to warm himself. He straightened *several* (doesn't replace noun) strands of straw. Then he braided a *few* (replaces noun-object). Now warmed, he knew he must return to his *other* (doesn't replace noun) chores. Tomorrow there would not be *many* (replaces noun object), he thought to himself. The family was going to meet Dad at the train station. He hoped there would be no more snowfall during the night. It would make the journey difficult. For their *last* (doesn't replace noun) trip there wasn't *any* (replaces noun-object).
- *4. See above.

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